



THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

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FIFTH EDITION

LONDON:
LONGMANS, GREEN, AND CO.
1873.

THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

LONDON

PRINTED BY WOODFALL AND KINDER,
ANGEL COURT, SKINNERS BUILDING

TO

THE REV. WILLIAM BUTCHER, M.A.,

OF OPSLEY, LINCOLNSHIRE,

IN ADMIRATION OF HIS ACCOMPLISHMENTS AS A LINGUIST,

AND AS A TESTIMONIAL OF PRIVATE REGARD,

The following Pages are Inscribed,

BY HIS FRIEND,

THE AUTHOR.

LONDON,
November 4th, 1841

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THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

PART I.

CHAPTER I.

GERMAN ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE - -ITS NAME.

§ 1. THE English Language was introduced into England from Germany. The name of the population which introduced it is first found in the Latin and Greek writers; with whom it is *Angli* and *Ἀγγελοι*—also *Ἀγγεῖλοι* though this is a rare and doubtful form. The *native* name, *i. e.* the name which occurs in the earliest *English* compositions, is either *Engle*,* or *Ængle*. This was the nominative plural; but it was only one of three forms. There were two others—*Englan*, and *Ænglas*. The genitive plural was *Ængla*: so that the English for *terra Anglorum* was *Ængla-land*; its abbreviated form *England*.

§ 2. The name by which the language was first known was *seo Engliscce spræc*† = *the English speech*—*English* being an adjective. This adjectival form is the only one which now survives; so that we say *Englishman* and *English* to the total exclusion of both *Engle* and *Engles*. The words *Angle* and *Angles*, occasionally and conveniently used, are the translation of the Latin *Anglus* and *Angli*.

§ 3. *Spræc* was, perhaps, the commonest word for *language*;

* For the inflection of the Gentile name, see Guest in Transactions of the Philological Society

† Grimm. *Deutsche Grammatik*. Third Edition, Introduction

though it was not the only one In the Mæso-Gothic, the term by which the Greek words *γλῶσσα* and *λαλιά* were rendered was *razda*, which in Anglo-Saxon became *reord*

Reord was þā gnet
Eord-buendum
An gemæne — *Cædmon*

i e,

Language was there yet
To the earth-dwellers
One common

Rede, *tunga*, and *taal*, are also either German or Norse terms. Another is *geþeod*, as in Mark v 41, "*Talimthi cumi*," þæt is on ure *geþeode* gereht; "Mæden! ic þe scegge, Aris" = "*Talimthi cumi*," which is, in our language, being interpreted, "Damsel! I say unto thee, Arise" This is an important word, inasmuch as it is the root of the word *Dutch* It is derived from *þeod* = *people* or *nation*, and means the *language of the people*, or the *vulgar tongue*, rather than, simply, *language* In German it is transparently clear that such is the meaning, it being not only opposed to the *Lingua Latina* but being often the translation of *rustica* or *vulgaris*

§ 4 *English* and *England*, in their older forms *Englisc* and *Engluland*, are *native* names. This means that they are the names by which the populations to which they applied designated themselves rather than the names by which they were designated by their neighbours They were names like *Deutschland* and *Deutsche*, rather than names like *Germany* and *German* or *Allemagne* and *Allemand*, these latter being terms by which the English and the French speak of the natives of Hesse, Westphalia, &c, rather than the name by which the Hessians, Westphalians, &c, speak of themselves. The *native* name, however, is not, necessarily, the only one, as may be seen from the examples just given. Neither is it, necessarily, the commoner, or the more current one. At the present time, the names *Germany* and *Allemagne* are current where the English and French manner of speaking of *Deutschland* prevail, whilst, even in *Deutschland* itself, the Latin term *Germania* is used by such writers as find it necessary to adopt the language of the classical authorities

§ 5. The name *English*, however, was Latin as well as native; *i. e.* when our forefathers and their language were written about in Latin, words like *Anglus* and *Anguliscus* were used to

denote them *Lingua Anglorum* is the expression of Beda. In a Sangallen MS we find notice of an *abidarium Anguliscum*.

§ 6 But *English* was not the only name. Concurrent with it was the term *Saxon*,—fures quos *Saxonice* dicimus *wergeld-peowas*. Now, *Saxon* and *Saxony* are words like *Germany* and *Allemagne* rather than words like *Deutschland*; i. e. names used by one population speaking of another, rather than names used by a given population speaking of itself. Except so far as they might have adopted the language of others, I find no evidence of any *Englishmen* ever having called either themselves or their countrymen *Saxons*. That they may have done so in the way that a modern man of *Deutschland* may call himself a *German* cannot be denied. Upon this, however, more will be said in the sequel.

§ 7. The applicants of the name *Saxon* seem to have been the original occupants of our island, i. e. the Britons. At the present time, the Welsh, the Irish and Scotch Gaels, along with the Manksmen of the Isle of Man, call an Englishman a *Saxon*, and the English, the *Saxon*, language. I believe that the Romans did the same, and that, thus, currency was given to the word. At any rate, *Saxon* and *English* were, to a certain extent, synonymous.

In the following passage from Beda, it seems as if *Saxonum* were the term found in Gildas, the *British* writer, and *Anglorum*, the English adaptation of it. At any rate, *Saxonum* is Gildas's term:—" . . . Qui inter alia . . . quæ historicus eorum Gildas flebili sermone describit, et hoc addebat, ut nunquam genti *Saxonum*, sive *Anglorum*, secum Britanniam incolenti verbum fidei prædicandum committerent."—*Hist Ecclesiast* i 22

§ 8. Out of the two has come the compound word *Anglo-Saxon*; the *Anglo-Saxon* language being the English in its oldest form. In this sense it is used by modern scholars, and means the English or the Saxon.

The earliest writer, however, who used it was Paulus Diaconus, or Paul Warnefiid, the historian of the Lombards; he meaning by it something different, i. e. the *Saxons of England*, as opposed to the Saxons of the Continent; for it must be remembered that, in his time, the two branches existed as separate populations—one in the British Islands, upon which they were colonists and conquerors; and the other in those parts of Germany from which they effected their invasions.

CHAPTER II.

GERMAN ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE—APPROXIMATE
DATE OF ITS INTRODUCTION.

§ 9 THE English language came from Germany. When? When was the mother-tongue of the present English first introduced into Britain? Was it introduced at once, or by degrees? Was its introduction the work of a few years or of many generations?

It is safe to say that it was introduced gradually; indeed, at the present moment, it is by no means universal. It has not yet reached the whole of Wales; nor yet the whole of Scotland; nor yet the whole of Ireland, nor yet the whole of the Isle of Man.

Just as the English language has, in our own times, spread itself over such countries as America, Australia, and New Zealand, did the Anglo-Saxon of early times spread itself over England. In America, Australia, and New Zealand, there were the original native languages, originally spoken by the original inhabitants. There was just the same in England. In America, Australia, and New Zealand, the native languages still continue to be spoken side by side with the English, although only partially. It is just the same in Wales, Scotland, Ireland, and the Isle of Man. Welsh is spoken in Wales, Manks in the Isle of Man, Scotch Gaelic in the Highlands of Scotland, and Irish Gaelic in Ireland.

§ 10. When was the English introduced? It is safe to say that the English language had found its way to certain parts of Britain as early as A.D. 597—as early as A.D. 597, *if not earlier*. It was, however, only *in certain parts* that it had fixed itself. It had yet to spread itself over the whole island.

§ 11. At the beginning of the seventh century the Angle, Saxon, or Anglo-Saxon history, first becomes trustworthy—it first becomes *historical*, so to say. There has been trustworthy history before, but it has been the history of *Britain*, not of *England*. The men and women with whom it has dealt have been Britons and Romans, rather than Englishmen and Germans.

There has, also, been, anterior to the beginning of the seventh

century, a trustworthy history of certain German, Angle, Saxon, or Anglo-Saxon, populations; but it has been the history of certain Germans, &c, on the soil of *Germany*, not on the soil of *England*.

The history, then, of the Angle Germans, as opposed to the Britons and Romans, and of the Germans of Britain, as opposed to the Germans of Germany, is trustworthy from A D. 597, and even then it is only partially so. Indeed, all we can say of A.D. 597 is, that a few well-authenticated statements and a few documents, apply to it; and when we have said this, we have said nearly all. Anything like continuous history does not occur until more than a century afterwards. Hence, A.D. 597 is the date of our first credible facts, facts which are few in number, and isolated. Now, that which gives this year its historical value is the introduction of Christianity amongst the Angles, which was then effected; the evidence as to its chief details (especially as to its date) being, to some extent, documentary. The following, for instance, is the letter of Pope Gregory to St. Augustin, who, being charged with the conversion of the Germans of Britain, had hesitated in his labour—he and his companions who “*perculsi timore inertī, redire domum potius quam barbaram, feram, incredulamque gentem, cujus ne linguam quidem nossent, adire, cogitabant.*”

Translation

Gregory, the servant of the servants of God, to the servants of the Lord, greeting! Inasmuch as it were better, in the matter of good things begun, not to have begun them, than, upon consideration, to draw back from those things which are begun, it behoves us, O most beloved sons, that the good work which, with exceeding zeal, with the help of God, ye have begun, ye may fulfil. Let not, then, the labour of the way, nor the tongues of evil-doing men deter you, but with all instance and all favour complete those things which, with God's help, ye have begun, with God as your guide knowing that for great labour a greater reward of eternal glory follows. But him, on his return, Augustin, your provost, whom we also constituted your Abbot, in all things, humbly obey. knowing that, in all things it will profit, for your souls, whatever may be in his admonition fulfilled. May the Omnipotent God, with his grace, protect you, and allow me to see the fruit of your labour in the eternal country. *Although I cannot labour with you, at the same time I shall be found in the joy of the reward, because forsooth I have the will to labour. God save you, most beloved sons.

Given the tenth day of the Kalenda of August, in the reign of our Lord Maurice Tiberius, the Most Pious Augustus, the Fourteenth; after the Consulship of the same our Lord the thirteenth year. In the fourteenth indiction.

In the Original

Gregorius servus servorum Dei, servus Domini nostri Quia melius fuerat bona non incipere, quam ab his quæ cepta sunt, cogitatione retrorsum reducere, summo studio, dilectissimi filii, oportet ut opus bonum, quod auxiliante Domino ceperitis, impleatis Nec labor vos ergo itineis, nec maledicorum hominum lingue detericiant sed omni instantia, omnique fervore, quæ inchoastis, Deo auctore, peragite, scientes quod laborem magnum major æternæ retributionis gloria sequitur Remicanti autem Augustino præposito vestro, quem et Abbatem vobis constitumus, in omnibus humiliter obedite scientes hoc vestris animabus per omnia profuturum, quidquid a vobis fuerit in ejus admonitione completum Omnipotens Deus sua vos gratia protegat, et vestri laboris fructum in æterna me patria videre concedat, quatenus etsi vobiscum laborare nequeo, simul in gaudio retributionis inveniar, quia laborare scilicet volo Deus vos incolumes custodiat, dilectissimi filii

Data die decima kalendarum Augustarum, imperante domino nostro Mauricio Tiberio piissimo Augusto anno decimo quarto, post consulatum ejusdem domini nostri anno decimo tertio Indictione decima quarta

2.

Translation

To the Most Reverend and the Most Holy Brother Etherius, Bishop, Gregory the servant of the servants of God Although, with priests who have that charity which pleases God, religious men need no recommendation, we, nevertheless (since a fit time for writing has presented itself), have cared to send our letters to your brotherhood remarking that we have directed thither, for the benefit of souls, and with the help of God, the bearer of the present, Augustin, the servant of God, of whose zeal we are assured along with others, whom it is necessary that your Holiness should hasten to, and, with sacerdotal zeal, give him his proper sustenance Whom, too, in order that ye may be the readier to support him, we have enjoined cautiously to tell you the occasion knowing that, when you are aware of it, ye may lend yourselves with all devotion to comfort him as need may be Moreover, we recommend to your charity in all things, Candidus, the Presbyter, our common son, whom we have sent over for the government of the little patrimony of our Church God keep you, most reverend brother

*In the Original**

Reverentissimo et sanctissimo fratri Etherio coepiscopo, Gregorius servus servorum Dei Licet apud sacerdotes habentes Deo placitam caritatem religiosi viri nullius commendatione indigeant, quia tamen aptum scribendi se tempus ingressit, fraternitati vestræ nostra mittere scripta curavimus insinuantes, latores præsentium Augustinum servum Dei, de cujus certi sumus studio, cum aliis servis Dei, illic nos pro utilitate animarum, auxiliante Domino, duxisse. quem necesse est ut sacerdotali studio Sanctitas vestra adjuvare, et sua ei solatia præbere festinet Cui etiam, ut promptiores ad suffragandum possitis existere, causam vobis injunximus subtiliter indicare Scientes quod ea cognita, tota vos propter Deum devotione ad solaciandum, quia res exigit, commodetis Candidum præterea presbyterum, communem filium, quem ad gubernationem patrimonii ecclesiæ nostræ transmissimus,

* Date as the preceding

caritati vestræ in omnibus commendamus Deus te incolumem custodiat,
reuerentissime frater

These letters, two out of several, are valuable, because they give a date

The narrative proceeds —

Translation from Bede

There lived at that time (A D 597) King Ethelbert, in Kent, very powerful, who had extended his kingdom as far as the boundary of the great river Humber, which divides the Northern and Southern divisions of the Angles

These missionaries got, from the nation of the Franks, interpreters

In the Original

Erat eo tempore (A D 597) rex Ædilbert in Cantia potentissimus, qui ad confinium usque Humbræ, fluminis maximi, quo Meridiam et Septentrionales Anglorum populi diuidentur, fines imperii tetenderat

Acceptant autem de gente Francorum interpretes — *Hist Ecclesiast*, lib 1 c 25

This indicates the necessity of a language which should be neither British nor Roman, but German. Still, the Frank language was not quite the language of the Angles

§ 12 The English language came from Germany When? Before A D. 597 How much? The *latest* possible date of its introduction has been examined. We now examine the *earliest*

The earliest notice of a well-known German population, with a well-known German name,—a population likely to have introduced into England the mother-tongue of the present English,—is in the *Notitia Utriusque Imperii*, the date of which most probably lies between A D 369 and A D 408.

It is necessary to put the statement thus guardedly; since I by no means deny the existence of isolated German settlements at an earlier period, I only deny that they represent that stream of population by which Britain became converted into England Partial settlements may have taken place at any period, and on any part of the soil Now, whether those that have been suggested, and which will be considered elsewhere, were real or unreal, whether the real ones were important or unimportant, they were *not* the settlements by which the mother-tongue of the present English was introduced.

§ 13. With these preliminaries we may take the texts of the *Notitia Utriusque Imperii*, of which the date has already been given as lying between A D 369 and A.D. 408. This, however, is an approximation. Arcadius died in the latter of the two

years, and the document is not likely to be later than his death. In A.D. 369 the southern part of Scotland was made into a province by Theodosius, and named by him after the emperor Valens, *Valentia*. Now, as *Valentia* is mentioned in the *Notitia*, the document cannot have been earlier than that event. It tells us that, when it was composed, certain populations called *Saxon* had extended themselves to portions of both Gaul and Britain: in each of which there was a tract called the *Saxon Shore*. Meanwhile, the following extract extends the jurisdiction of the *Count of the Saxon Shore in Britain* from the Wash to the Southampton Water; there or thereabouts.

Translation

UNDER THE ORDERS OF THE RESPECTABLE COUNT OF THE SAXON SHORE IN
BRITAIN (Chap 1)

The Captain of the Company of the Fortenses, at Denge Ness
The Captain of the Tungicani, at Dover
The Captain of the Company of the Turnacenses, at Lympne
The Bandon Captain of the Dalmatian Cavalry, at Bandon
The Bugh Castle Captain of the Stablesian Cavalry, at Bugh Castle
The Tribune of the First Cohort of the Vetasians, at Reculvers
The Captain of the Second Augustan Legion, at Richborough
The Captain of the Company of the Abulci, at Anderida
The Captain of the Company of Pioneers, at Port Adur

In the Original

SUB DISPOSITIONE VIRI SPECTABILIS COMITIS LIMI TIS SAXONICI PER
BRITANNIAM

Præpositus numerū Fortensium, Othonæ
Præpositus militum Tungicanorum, Dubis
Præpositus numerū Turnacensium, Lemanis
Præpositus equitum Dalmatarum, Bianodunensis, Bianoduno
Præpositus equitum Stablesianorum Gariannonensis, Gariannono.
Tribunus Cohortis Primæ Vetasiorum, Regulbio
Præpositus Legionis II Aug Rutupis
Præpositus numerū Abulcorum, Anderidæ
Præpositus numerū Exploratorum, Portu Adurni (Cap lxxi)

Although the exact import of the names of some of these companies is uncertain, and although there may be differences of opinion as to what is meant by *Fortenses*, *Abulci*, and the like, there is no doubt as to the meaning of such a term as *Dalmatæ*. It implies that the soldiers which bore it were Dalmatians rather than Romans. Such being the case, their language may have been Dalmatian also, whatever that was; a point which must be carefully remembered when we investigate the minute ethnology

of Roman Britain. At any rate, it is clear that under the name of *Roman* there was, probably, something that had but little to do with Rome

The doctrine that the *Litus Saxonicum* in general was German is not only extremely likely in itself, but is confirmed by a short paragraph in the notice of Gaul, where we find, under the Commander of the *Belgica Secunda*, the *Dalmatian Cavalry of the March*—*March* being a German gloss.

SUB DISPOSITIONE VIRI SPECTABILIS DUCIS BELGICÆ SEUNDÆ
Equites Dalmatæ *March* in *Litore Saxónico* (Chap. XXXVII § 1)

§ 14 The date, then, of the earliest notice of a well-known German population with a well-known German name—a population likely to have introduced the mother-tongue of the present English, is the earliest date of the *Notitia*, viz A.D. 369

§ 15. Earlier than this there are notices of *some* German populations in Britain; but the fact of their being Angles, Saxons, or Anglo-Saxons, is not conclusive. The most important of these is, perhaps, the following extract from the panegyric of the orator Mamertinus on the Emperor Maximian, a colleague of Diocletian's, which gives us Franks in the parts about London in the reign of Diocletian.

Translation

By so thorough a consent of the Immortal Gods, O unconquered Cæsar, has the extermination of all the enemies whom you have attacked, and of the *Franks more especially*, been decreed, that even those of your soldiers, who having missed their way on a foggy sea, reached the town of London, destroyed promiscuously and throughout the city, the whole remnant of that mercenary multitude of barbarians, which, after escaping the battle, sacking the town, and attempting flight, was still left—a deed whereby your provincials were not only saved, but delighted by the sight of the slaughter

In the Original.

Emmveio, Cæsar invicto, tanto Deorum immortalium tibi est addicta consensu omnium quidem, quos adortus fueris, hostium, sed præcipue internecio Francorum, ut illi quoque milites vestri, qui per eiorum nebulosum, ut paulo ante dixi, maris adjuncti ad oppidum Londinense pervenerant, quicquid ex mercenaria illa multitudine barbarorum prælio superfuisset, cum, dnepta civitate, fugam capessere cogitarent, passum totâ urbe confecerint, et non solum provincialibus vestris in cæde hostium dederint salutem, sed etiam in spectaculo voluptatem

This was A.D. 290; but the Franks, though Germans, were not Angles. At the same time, there are good reasons for believing that they had certain Angles for their allies; or at any rate, they had certain allies whom they called *Saxons*.

These Franks seem to have been the countrymen, if not the actual soldiers, of Carausius. Now Carausius was a German from the district of the Menapii. He was appointed by Diocletian to protect the coast of Gaul against the Franks and Saxons—"quod *Franchi et Saxones* infestabant." * His head-quarters lay at *Bononia* = *Boulogne*. His title was *Comes maritima tractus*—Count of the maritime tract, this tract being (as far as Gaul was concerned) the subsequent *Litus Saxonicum*. He afterwards rebelled, and assumed the Imperial title in Britain, was assassinated by Allectus (A.D. 293), who (in his turn) was defeated by Asclepiodotus.

Again, A.D. 306, Constantius dies at York, and his son Constantine, assisted by Erc, king of the Alemanni, assumes the empire, but the Alemanni, though Germans, were not Angles.

CHAPTER III

GERMAN ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE—DIRECTION AND RATE.

§ 16. *Direction*.—The English language spread from east to west: this being the direction which we expect *à priori*. That it did so, however, is a fact which we arrive at by inference rather than from any historical testimony. The eastern side of Britain is the one upon which a body of Germans would first land: the western, the one in which the original language would longest hold its ground.

§ 17. Wales is British at the present moment; Radnorshire being the county where the Welsh language is at its *minimum*. The exact details of the extinction of the Cornish are unknown. An old woman of the name of Dolly Pentteath was visited by Sir Joseph Banks, as the last individual who could speak it. Many years ago, Mr. Norris heard an old Cornish man "repeat the Lord's Prayer, and part of the Creed, which he had been taught by his father, or grandfather. The man was probably the last person living who had learned Cornish

* Eutropius, ix. 21.

words from one to whom they had been the vernacular idiom, and even he repeated the words without any definite knowledge of their purport." *

In the parish of Llandewednack service was done in Cornish, A.D. 1690.

In Devonshire, a dialect of the British, either identical with or closely akin to the Cornish, is believed to have been spoken as late as A.D. 1100.

In Shropshire and Monmouthshire the Welsh lasted longer than in the other two frontier-counties, Herefordshire and Cheshire.

That British was spoken in Cumberland after the Conquest, is generally believed. I have not, however, gone into the evidence of the fact.

§ 18. *Rate* — In the year A.D. 617, a victory over Æthelfrith, King of Northumberland, enabled Eadwin to take possession of that kingdom. One of the early acts of his reign was the invasion of Elmet not far from the present site of Leeds. It was not only an independent State, but it was a British one—*sub rege Brittonum Cerdice*—*Beda*, iv. 23. This is so very probable, that no exception lies in the fact of Beda having written more than 100 years after the event, which took place subsequent to the introduction of Christianity, and which also took place in that part of England which Beda knew well.

§ 19. In the *middle* of the *eighth* century, the number of languages spoken within the four seas, as known to Beda, was five.

Translation

This at the present time, according to the number of the books in which the Divine Law is written, explores and confesses the one and the same knowledge of supreme truth and true sublimity in the language of five nations—viz the Angles, the Britons, the Scots, the Picts, and the Latins, which, from the perusal of the Scriptures, is made common to all the others.

In the Original.

Hæc in præsentî, juxta numerum librorum quibus lex divina scripta est, quinque gentium linguas unam eandemque summæ veritatis et veræ sublimitatis scientiam scrutatur et confitetur, Angloium videlicet, Brittonum, Scoitorum, Pictorum, et Latinoium, quæ meditatione scripturarum, cæteris omnibus est facta communis—Lib i c 1.

* The Ancient Cornish Drama. Edited and translated by E. Norris. Oxford, 1859. Vol II, p. 497, Appendix

CRONYKIL I, LIII 39

Of Langagis in Bietavne seie
 I fynd that sum tym fyf thaire were
 Of Bietty's fyrst, and Inghe syne,
 Peycht, and Scot, and syne Latyne
 Dot, of the Peychtis, is feily,
 That are wndon sá halyly,
 That nowthin remanande at Language,
 Næ succession of Lynage,
 Swá of thaire antiquyté
 Is lyk bot fabyll for to be

§ 20 Such are the facts that bear upon the question of Direction and Rate. They are few, and slight. That the English language spread from east to west they tell us. This, however, is no more than what we might legitimately assume without them. Whether it developed itself from south to north, or *vice versâ*, is uncertain. Neither can we say from how many points it spread. Again, the evidence that any British dialect was spoken to any late period, in either the midland or the eastern parts of England, save and except the district of Elmet, is unsatisfactory. Still, there is an approach to it. Professor Philips has drawn attention to a grant of land in Leicestershire, for the parts about Charnwood Forest, made in favour of a British proprietor. Then there is the story of St Guthlac, of Croyland, which runs thus:—"The saint being disturbed one night by a horrid howling, was seriously alarmed, thinking that the howlers might be *Britons*. Upon looking out, however, he discovered that they were only devils—whereby he was comforted, the Britons being the worse of the two." The later we make this apocryphal story, the more it tells in favour of there having been Britons in Lincolnshire long after the Angle conquests.

That a hilly district like Charnwood, or a fenny one like Crowland, should give a likely retreat to the remnants of a population like the Britons, is natural.

§ 21. The train of reasoning indicated by the following fact is, to a great extent, hypothetical, at the same time, it has a sufficient amount of presumption in its favour to command our attention, whether for the purposes of objection or confirmation. The word *sceta* = *settler*, and, perhaps, the plural form *scetas*, might, in Lower Canada, be translated *habitans*. It is a word which not only enters into composition, but is generally found as the second element of a compound. Thus, if there were

such a word as *Cantsætas*, it would mean the *settlers in Kent*. But no such word has turned up. On the contrary, the ordinary name of the Kentish men and women is *Cuntwære* = *Canticolæ*. There *is*, however (comparatively speaking), a long list of compounds where *-wære* is replaced by *-sætas*. I do not say that none of these occur in the earlier Angle districts. I only say that they are the most numerous in those districts which, on *à priori* grounds, we may suppose were occupied as secondary settlements—settlements which are, by hypothesis, supposed to have borne the same relation to the settled kingdoms as those of the backwoodsmen of America do to the older States.

If this view be valid, the termination *-set* in the present counties of Dorset and Somerset suggests the notion that they may have been somewhat more British than Sussex and Hants. To which add Devon and Wilts—the old names for which were *Defusætas* and *Wiltscætas*, also the *Magsætas* in Hereford, and the *Piscætas*, or Peakmen, in Derby.

In all these the presumption coincides with the form of the word. In Wilts, Dorset, Devon, Somerset, and Hereford, we have a western; in Derby, a mountainous district.

§ 22 The spread of the English is one thing, the obliteration of the British another. It by no means follows that, because in one district the displacement was effected by the English, the same agency must have effected it in another. There may have been other forces at work. That some portion of the older form of speech was displaced by the Danes, Scandinavians, or Northmen, rather than by the Angles, is possible. This, however, will be considered in the sequel. At present it is sufficient to state, that, *upon the whole*, it was the English by which the older tongue was displaced, the displacements effected by any other language being partial and doubtful.

CHAPTER IV.

GERMAN ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.—WITH WHAT LANGUAGE, OR LANGUAGES, DID IT COME IN CONTACT?

§ 23. WHAT was the language with which the English from Germany came in contact, and at the expense of which it spread

itself? Was it one language only? Was it the British of the original islanders, or was it the Latin of the Roman conquerors? Supposing it to be British, was it all of one sort? Was it all of one sort, supposing it to have been Latin?

The text of Beda, just given, bears upon these questions. It fails, however, to settle them. It fails, indeed, to show that the Latin was a *spoken* language at all. It points to the *ecclesiastical* Latin of the Scriptures, indeed, in another passage, where the vernaculars are under notice, the number of them is *four*, — *omnes nationes et provincias Britannæ, quæ in quatuor linguas, id est Brittonum, Pictorum, Scottorum et Anglorum, divisæ sunt, in ditione acceptit.*—*Ecc. Hist.* iii. 6

§ 24. It cannot, then, be said that our chief historical witness is in favour of the Latin having been a spoken language at the time when he wrote, *i. e.* in the middle of the eighth century. Earlier evidence than his, either way, is impossible. Later evidence that even *suggests* the Latin as a current form of speech we have none. The question then must be treated upon internal evidence, upon a balance of the presumptions, and upon the analogies supplied by other countries. In respect to the former, it may safely be said that as a general rule the Romans are believed to have introduced their language wherever they effected a conquest. In some countries this is known to be true. In Greece, where there were especial reasons for an exception, it is known *not* to be so. In the greater part of the Roman world, the practice, as in Britain, was doubtful.

§ 25. In Spain and Portugal, in France, Switzerland, Wallachia, and Moldavia, whilst it is certain that the original languages were other than Latin, it is equally certain that the present forms of speech are of Latin origin. The analogies, then, of these countries are in favour of the rule just suggested. What, however, was the case with the following — Africa, Hungary, Dalmatia, Servia, Bulgaria, Rumelia? In all these the evidence that the Latin language displaced the language of the native inhabitants is *nil*. Yet it is scarcely possible that if ever the language of the country around Constantinople had been Latin we should have failed to have known the fact. As far, then, as the analogy is concerned, Britain may have as easily have been in the condition of Thrace and Servia as of Spain and Gaul.

§ 26. That there was *some* Latin in Britain is beyond doubt; there was the ecclesiastical Latin of the Anglo-Saxon church to

which our quotation from Beda has drawn attention. There was the ecclesiastical Latin of the British Church. Finally, there was the Latin of the Roman soldiers, the Roman officials, the Roman literati, and the Romanized natives. I can easily believe that this Latin was current, and perhaps universal, in the towns. That it was the language of each and all of the numerous inscriptions that have been found in Britain, is certain, it being equally certain that nothing similar in British has ever been found. It is needless to add, that this is a fact upon which great stress has been laid by the advocates of the doctrine that the Latin language entirely displaced the British. It only proves, however, that the Latin was the language of the educated classes. All that we know about its exclusive use as a written language, and all that we are at liberty to believe about its prevalence in the towns, proves nothing as to the non-existence of the British in the rural districts. And, that it did so prevail we infer from two primary facts —(1st.) the existence of the Welsh and Cornish, in modern times. (2nd.) the existence of British words in the present English, these, though not many, being far more numerous than the Latin of the corresponding period. The extent to which either the British or the Latin was homogeneous will be considered in the sequel.

§ 27 *Wales*, a peculiar and curious word, is now the name of a country, but at first it was that of a people—meaning the *Welshmen*. Its older form is *Wealhas* the plural of *Wealh*. It was an Anglo-Saxon word used to denote those populations which resided on the borders of the Anglo-Saxons, but were not themselves Anglo-Saxon. Hence, it was applied by the Angles to the remains of the ancient Britons. It is, then, anything but a Welsh denomination. Neither is it applied to the Welsh exclusively. Neither are the Angles the only Germans who have had recourse to it when they wished to designate a nation which was other than German. It applies to the Italians; *Welschland* being a German name for Italy. The *Valais* districts of Switzerland are the districts occupied by the *Welsh*, i. e. the Non-Germans. The parts about Liege constitute the *Walloon* country; a country on the frontier of Germany, but not German. *Wallachia*, too, is only another *Wales* or *Welshland*.

CHAPTER V.

GERMAN ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE—CRITICISM OF
THE CURRENT STATEMENTS CONCERNING ITS INTRODUCTION.

§ 28 The consideration of the date of the introduction of the mother-tongue of the present English into England has filled several pages ; pages which, in the eyes of many of my readers, may have seemed superfluous. It may have seemed superfluous to have made so long a story out of so simple a matter, to have given two extreme dates, to have encumbered these with much discussion ; and, finally, to have arrived at an approximation only. Why this has been done will be seen as we proceed. At present the question of *place* commands attention.

§ 29. Whence came the English language ? It has been said that the English language came from Germany. But Germany, as it stands at present, is a large country, and the name an indefinite one. It is foreign to the Germans themselves, who call their own country *Deutschland* ; their language *Deutsche Sprache*, and themselves *Deutsche*. And Germany, as it stood when Britain was first invaded, was by no means co-extensive with the Germany of the nineteenth century. Pomerania is no true and original part of it : Brandenburg none. East and West Prussia none : Saxony and Lusatia none. These have all become German since the date of the conquest of Britain, and they were all, at the time when that conquest took place, something other than German. Prussia was Lithuanic ; Saxony and Lusatia, Brandenburg and Pomerania, Slavonic. Other parts were also Slavonic—certainly so in the ninth century, and probably so at a much earlier period. Mecklenburg, Lauenburg, Altmark, Luneburg, and a part of Holstein were in this predicament. On the other hand, Holland and parts of Belgium, which are now (politically at least) separated from Germany, may easily have formed part of the Germany of the conquerors of Britain.

§ 30. At the present time, too, the German population of Germany is by no means uniform. Whatever may be the difference between the most extreme forms of the English language as spoken within the British Isles, it is greater in Germany

between two extreme Germans. *e. g.* a Bavarian and a Holsteiner are more unlike one another than a Cornishman and a man from Aberdeenshire. Just as little uniform was the population of ancient Germany. Some portions of it came under the name of Frank, some under that of Saxon, some under that of Thuringian, and in many cases the change of name corresponded with a change of dialect.

In the course of a few chapters these distinctions will come out clearer. At present, however, it is sufficient to state, that on the southern frontier of Germany, Gaul was Celtic, that there were more Slavonians on the west side of the Elbe than there were Germans on the east, and that, northwards, towards or beyond the Eyder, came the Scandinavians. Between these boundaries lay those portions of the German populations, which, from their geographical position, are the likeliest, *à priori*, to have helped to people England.

§ 31. The English language came from Germany. From what part? If Britain had been peopled from Germany, as America and Australia have been peopled from Britain, within either the memory of man, or under the full light of clear, authentic, cotemporary and trustworthy history, such a question as this last would have been superfluous, for a moderate amount of information would have supplied the answer. But it was not during a literary period that Celtic Britain became transformed into German England, on the contrary, it was during a time of darkness and disturbance, when the classical literature had died out, and before the literature of Christianity had been developed. Again, if the Anglo-Saxon language had still kept its ground in Germany, even in an altered form, the reply would have been easy, and a reference to the map would have been sufficient. But this is not the case. Throughout the whole length and breadth of Germany there is not one village, hamlet, or family, which can show definite signs of descent from the continental ancestors of the Angles of England. In no nook or corner can dialect or sub-dialect of the most provincial form of the German speech be found which shall have a similar pedigree with the English. The Angles of the Continent are either exterminated or undistinguishably mixed up with the other Germans in proportions more or less large, and in combinations more or less heterogeneous. The history of the conquest and conversion of the Saxons by Charlemagne is the history of this fusion or extinction; and it is this that makes it so difficult

to argue backwards from the present state of the Angles of Germany to an earlier one, and so to reconstruct their history Friesland, indeed, if we look to the present condition of the languages allied to the English and spoken in Germany, gives us the nearest approximation to the mother-country of our mother-tongue. Nevertheless, it is not exactly from Friesland that the Anglo-Saxon was derived; so that Friesland is only an approximation. Hence, the *place* from which our language was derived, as well as the *time* at which it was introduced, forms a subject of investigation.

§ 32 This (as aforesaid) may also seem superfluous. It cannot be denied that current historians treat the matter differently, that they dispose of it briefly. They give us a definite date—time and place as well. They tell us from what parts of Germany each division of our German invaders came. They tell us who led them. They tell us what parts of the country of the Britons they severally invaded. They give us other details besides. There were more settlements than one, and the details run thus.—

(1.) In the year 449 A.D. certain invaders from northern Germany made the first permanent settlement in Britain. Ebbsfleet, in the Isle of Thanet, was the spot where they landed, and the particular name they gave themselves was that of *Jutes*. Their leaders were Hengest and Horsa. Six years after their landing, they had established the Kingdom of Kent; so that the county of Kent was the first district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Germany.

(2.) In the year 477 A.D. invaders from Northern Germany made the second permanent settlement in Britain. The coast of Sussex was the spot on which they landed. The particular name they gave themselves was that of *Saxons*. Their leader was Ælla. They established the kingdom of the South Saxons (Sussex), so that the county of Sussex was the second district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Northern Germany.

(3.) In the year 495 A.D. invaders from Northern Germany made the third permanent settlement in Britain. The coast of Hampshire was the spot whereon they landed. Like the invaders last mentioned, they were *Saxons*. Their leader was Cerdic. They established the kingdom of the West Saxons (Wessex); so that the county of Hants was the third district where the

original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Northern Germany

(4) A D 530 certain *Saxons* landed in Essex; so that the county of Essex was the fourth district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Northern Germany

(5) This settlement, which was one of the *Angles* in East *Anglia*, of which the precise date is not known, took place during the reign of Cerdic in Wessex. The fifth district, then, where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, was the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk; the particular dialect introduced being that of the *Angles*

(6) In the year 547 A D invaders from Northern Germany made the sixth permanent settlement in Britain. The south-western counties of Scotland, between the rivers Tweed and Forth, were the districts where they landed. They were of the tribe of the Angles, and their leader was Ida. The south-western parts of Scotland constituted the sixth district where the original British was superseded by the mother-tongue of the present English, introduced from Northern Germany

Such are the details of the Anglo-Saxon settlements as taken from the fullest work upon the subject, Sharon Turner's History of the Anglo-Saxons, and it may be added, that they rest upon *data* which ninety-nine-hundredths of the investigators of the period to which they refer acquiesce in.

Supposing them, then, to be accurate, they only require a few additional facts to make them sufficient for the purposes of criticism. They only require a notice of the different parts of Germany which these three nations came from respectively

§ 33. Now, the current doctrines upon this point are as follows.—

(1) That the geographical locality of the Jutes was the Peninsula of Jutland; and that—

(2) That of the Angles was the present Duchy of Sleswick; so that they were the southern neighbours of the Jutes, and that—

(3) That of the Saxons was a small tract north of the Elbe, and some district—more or less extensive—between the Elbe and Rhine

§ 34 The correctness of all this being assumed, the further

question as to the relation which the different immigrant tribes bore to each other finds place; and it is only taking up the different problems under investigation in their due order and sequence, if we ask about the extent to which the Jute differed from (or agreed with) the Angle or the Saxon, and the relations of the Angle and the Saxon to each other. Did they speak different languages?—different dialects of a common tongue?—or dialects absolutely identical? Did they belong to the same, or to different confederations? Was one polity common to all? Were the civilizations similar? Questions like these being answered, and a certain amount of mutual difference being ascertained, it then stands over to inquire whether any traces of this original difference are still to be found in the modern English. Have any provincial dialects characteristics which are Jute rather than Angle? or Angle rather than Saxon? Are (or are not) certain local customs Saxon rather than Angle—certain points of dialect Angle rather than Saxon, and *vice versâ*? Supposing all this to be accurate, we know where to look for the answers.

In Kent the original British was superseded by the dialect of the Jutes—there being also Jutes in parts of Hants, and in the Isle of Wight; and

In Sussex the original British was superseded by the Saxon of Ælla's followers, and

In the following counties, it was the Saxon of Cerdic that displaced the British—Hants, Dorset, Wilts, Somerset, Surrey, Gloster, Buckinghamshire, these counties constituting the important kingdom of the West Saxons (Wessex), and

It was by the extension of the Saxon introduced by the invaders of A.D. 530 that the original British of Essex, Middlesex, and part of Hertfordshire was superseded, and

It was by the extension of the language introduced by the Angle invaders of Norfolk and Suffolk that the original British of Cambridgeshire and the Isle of Ely, and of parts of Lincolnshire and Northamptonshire, was superseded, and, lastly,

It was by the extension of the language introduced by the Angles of the south of Scotland that the original British was superseded in the following counties—Northumberland, Westmoreland, Cumberland, Cheshire, Lancashire, Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire, and the North Midland counties.

Hence, all, as aforesaid, being accurate, we should seek—

For the characteristic *differentie* of the Jutes, in Kent part of Sussex, and the Isle of Wight,

For those of Saxons, in Sussex Essex, Hants (Wessex), and Middlesex,

For those of the Angles, in Norfolk, Suffolk, Yorkshire, Durham, Northumberland, &c

Or, changing the expression —

The *differentie* of the people of Kent, part of Sussex, and the Isle of Wight (if any) would be explained by the *differentie* of the original Jute immigrants,

Those of the rest of Sussex, Wessex, Essex, and Middlesex by those of the Saxons,

Those of the people of Norfolk, &c, by those of the Angles

As to the *Saxon* portion of England, everything would be transparently clear, inasmuch as three English counties, at the present moment, take their name from the word *Seaxe* (*Saxons*), and preserve the denomination of three *Saxon* kingdoms, *viz* *Es-sax*, *Sus-sax*, and *Middle-sax*

§ 35 A little consideration, however, engrafted upon a *modicum* of historical knowledge, will tell us that all this is untenable. What was the cotemporary history, what the geography, what the chronology for these times? Lappenberg and Kemble, along with others, have shown its worthlessness. The latter half of the fifth century was, for Britain at least, too late for the reckoning by consuls and emperors, whilst the birth of Christ, introduced by Dionysius Exiguus in the sixth century, could scarcely have taken root as a date much before A.D. 600.

And what are the events, real or supposed, of this period of darkness? For Kent, the details concerning Hengest and Horsa, with their descendants the *Æscings*. For Sussex, the descent of *Æthel*, with his sons, in 477 a defeat of the Britons in 485, the destruction of Anderida in 491. For Wessex, we have some entries for the years 495, 501, 508, 514, 519, 527, 530, 534, 544, 552, 556, 568, 571, 577, 584, 590, 591, 593, 595, and 597, when Ceolwulf ascends the throne, and Augustin lands. For Northumberland, the details are scantier still, and even still more scanty are those of East Anglia, Essex, and Mercia.

§ 36 The present writer believes that objections like these, — objections of which the preceding remarks give only a cursory sketch, — are understated rather than overstated. Hence the usual details are not adopted by him; neither the date A.D. 449, nor the triple division into Angles, Saxons,

and Jutes. Still less have the districts of Germany, whence these three supposed populations, respectively, proceeded to Great Britain, been considered as finally determined. On the contrary, the *date* of the migration makes one subject for criticism, whilst the *locality* whence it originated makes another.

§ 37 The chief authorities for the usual details respecting the earlier Anglo-Saxons are—

a The Ecclesiastical History of Beda—the *Venerable Bede*, as he is generally called.

b The so-called Saxon Chronicle

§ 38. *Beda*—Beda is the most important His work is dedicated to Ceolwulf, king of Northumberland, who reigned from A.D. 729 to A.D. 737.

No previous history of the kind existed, so that it was by special applications to his cotemporary ecclesiastics that Beda got his facts; each application being made for the history of some particular diocese or district. Thus—

For *Kent*, Albinus, abbot of Canterbury, was the chief authority. He forwarded to Beda, by a priest of the Church of London named Nothelm, such statements as “*vel monumentis literarum vel seniorum traditione cognoverat.*” Nothelm visited Rome, and brought thence those papal letters of Gregory and others, which have already been noticed.

Albinus, also, gave some notices of some of the districts around the kingdom of Kent—“*diligenter omnia quæ in ipsa Cantuariorum provincia vel etiam in contiguis eidem regionibus—cognoverat*”

For the *West-Saxons*, *Sussex*, *Isle of Wight*, Danihel, bishop of Wessex, alive when Beda wrote, “*nonnulla de historia ecclesiastica provinciæ ipsius simul et proximæ illi Australium Saxonum nec non et Vectæ Insulæ litteris mandata declaravit.*” To this we may add certain notices from the Abbot Albinus

East Anglia—Norfolk and Suffolk—“*Porro in provincia Orientalium Anglorum quæ fuerint gesta ecclesiastica, partim ex scriptis vel traditione priorum, partim reverentissimi abbatis Esî relatione comperimus.*”

Notices also were supplied by the Abbot Albinus, the authority for Kent

Mercia—The details here were from the monks of Lestingham. “*Diligenter a fratribus monasterii quod ab ipsis conditum Læstingæu (sic) cognominatur agnovimus.*” Some of these

notices extended to the history of *Essex*. For the province of *Lincoln* the evidence was separate—"At vero in provincia Lindissi quæ sint gesta erga fidem Christi, quæve successio sacerdotalis extiterit, vel literis reverentissimi antistitis Cyniberti, vel aliorum fidelium vivorum viva voce didicimus."

Northumberland—Beda himself worked at the history here—"Quæ autem in Nordanhymbiorum provincia ex quo tempore fidem Christi perceperunt usque ad præsens per diversas regiones in ecclesia sint acta, non uno quolibet auctore, sed fidei innumerorum testium qui hæc scire vel meminisse poterant adsertione cognovi, exceptis his quæ per meipsum nosse poteram. Inter quæ notandum, quod ea quæ de sanctissimo patre et antistite Cudbereto vel in hoc volumine vel in libello gestorum ipsius conscripsi, partim ex eis quæ de illo prius a fratribus ecclesiæ Lindisfarnensis scripta reperi, adsumpsi simpliciter fidem historiæ quam legebam accommodans, partim vero ea quæ certissima fidelium vivorum adtestatione per me ipse cognoscere potui solleter adjicere curavi. Lectorumque suppliciter obsecro, ut si qua in his quæ scripsimus aliter quam se veritas habet posita reperit, non hoc nobis imputet, qui, quod vera lex historiæ est, simpliciter ea quæ fama vulgante collegimus ad instructionem posteritatis literis mandare studuimus."

The real evidence, then, is that of Albinus, Daniel, the monks of *Lestingham*, &c., rather than that of Beda himself. Nor, strictly speaking, are these absolutely responsible. Strictly speaking, it is only for the *Ecclesiastical* history of the times subsequent to the conversion of *Ethelbert* that any of the authorities above-mentioned are referred to. For the times anterior to the introduction of Christianity and the foundation of the See of *Canterbury* the reference is to the old writers in general.

Translation

From the beginning of this volume to the time when the nation of the *Angles* received the religion of Christ, I have learned what I lay before you from the writings of those who have gone before me, as I have collected them from this quarter or that. From that time, however, to the present, &c.

In the Original

A principio itaque voluminis hujus usque ad tempus quo gens *Anglorum* fidem Christi percepit, ex priorum maxime scriptis, hic inde collectis ea quæ promeremus didicimus. Exinde autem, &c.

The gist of the continuation has already been given. It tells us for what he consulted *Albinus*—for what *Nothelm*—for

what Daniel, &c. As to the *priorum scripta*, one was the *Liber Querulus de Excidio Britanniae* of Gildas, a scholar of St. Illutus, and a monk of Bangor, who died and was buried at Glastonbury, and who states of himself that he was born in the year of the battle of the Mons Badonicus; a battle which no investigator makes earlier than A.D. 493, and which some bring down to A.D. 516. Now, let Gildas have written as early as A.D. 540, let him have been the brightest luminary of the British Church; and let the literary culture which attended the early Christianity of our island have been ever so high, we still find that, even for ordinary history, his opportunities whether of time or place, are utterly insufficient to make his statements conclusive. *Mutatis mutandis*, this applies to Beda. Add to Gildas a life of St. Germanus and some few classical writers, and we have the *priorum scripta* for the *Historia Ecclesiastica*. Whatever may have been the learning of the author, and however much he may have been in advance of his age, his materials are neither better nor worse than this. And these were bad. A measure of the amount of inaccuracy of the authorities for these early times is to be found in their accounts of the Roman Wall. Gildas says it was built against the Scots and Picts, and that its date was the fifth century. Beda follows him. The worthlessness of this statement is well known. What warrant have we that it is the only error in the works in which it occurs?

§ 39 *The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*—The so-called Anglo-Saxon Chronicle has always commanded attention, and that on good grounds. For the later years of the Anglo-Saxon period, it is our only full and satisfactory document, so that its simple historical value is high. But, besides this, it is written in the Anglo-Saxon language—so that it has a philological value as well. Yet this Anglo-Saxon dress has a tendency to mislead. A chronicle in Latin passes for what it is, *viz* for a composition of the monks, and compositions of the monks (as a general rule) are more undervalued than overvalued. But a work in the vernacular tongue has a simple unsophisticated appearance that takes the judgment at a disadvantage. It appears to represent a literature of home-growth, whilst literatures of home-growth suggest the idea of historical credibility.

Another reason for overvaluing the importance of the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle is suggested by the following extract.—

Notwithstanding the variations existing among the several manuscripts, then general resemblance, particularly a striking agreement in many chronological errors, both in the Anglo-Saxon and Latin texts must appear very remarkable. In explanation of this, Gibson refers to an account, that in the monasteries of royal foundation in England, whatever worthy of remembrance occurred in the neighbourhood was committed to writing, that such records were, at the next synod, compared with each other, and that from them the Chronicles were composed—*Lappenberg, Literary Introduction to England under the Anglo-Saxon Kings—Thorpe's Translation, p. 44*

If we take this view of Gibson's, the Chronicle becomes a *Register*, a register of cotemporary events entered as they happened, just as births, deaths, and marriages are entered throughout the parishes of England at the present time. A simple *Chronicle*, on the other hand, is the work of some historian subsequent to the events recorded, a work as different from a Register as a pedigree in the Herald's Office is from a Family Bible. Of the two the Register is more valuable. Which was the work in question? The practice suggested is mentioned by a writer of the fifteenth century, and applies to the ecclesiastical entries of an ecclesiastical period. The times of Hengest and Horsa are Pagan times. For these, the notion of cotemporary registered entries of facts as they occurred, whatever may have been the case in the times nearer the Norman Conquest, is out of the question. Hence, whatever may be the credibility of the Chronicle during the reigns of the later Anglo-Saxon kings, its merits, in this respect, have no bearing upon the questions now under notice, *viz.* the details of the German invasion (or invasions) during the Pagan period and anterior to the year 600 (597).

§ 40 Neither is the work itself for this (and, it may be added, for a much later) period, stamped with any definite marks of accuracy or trustworthiness. On the contrary, there are several very suspicious elements in it.

For the first of these the notice is due to Lappenberg, who remarks that, in the early history of the kingdom of Kent, the chief events occur at a regular period either of eight years or some multiple of eight. Thus.—

Hengest lands	A.D. 449
The Battle of Crecanford	457
„ Wippedfleet	465
The Lind battle	473

Just twenty-four years (3×8) after Hengest, dies Æsc, his son.

§ 41 The proper names are not less suspicious than the dates. The names of the Anglo Saxons who appear subsequent to the introduction of Christianity, the names that are found in the Anglo-Saxon charters, the names on the Anglo-Saxon coins, the names of undoubtedly real individuals, living under the light of history, are eminently well marked in character. They are chiefly compounds, and their elements (though not always capable of a satisfactory interpretation) are evidently referable to the Anglo-Saxon language. I open a volume of the *Codex Diplomaticus*, hap-hazard (vol. II p. 173), and find the following list, as an illustration —

Ælfwine	Sigelm	Wynsige	Tidelm	Wined	Uhted
Eadulf	Cenwald	Wulfhun	Cynsige	Ælfwald	Æscebiht
Cunan	Beornstan	Deoðeard	Eadward	Oseferð	Ælfstan, &c

I find the same in the list of kings from Egberht downwards:—

Ecebiht	Æthelbald	Æthelred	Eadweird	Eadmund	Eadwig
Æthelwulf	Æthelbert	Ælfred	Æthelstan	Eadied	Eadgar, &c

I will not say that *no* such names occur anterior to A.D. 597. A *few* such are to be found. But, as a general rule, the names that occur anterior to the introduction of Christianity are names which do not occur subsequently, and (*vice versâ*) the names which appear in the truly historical times are not found in the doubtful period. But Christianity, it may be argued, may have affected the change. This explanation would be valid if the later names were like John, James, &c — scriptural designations; but they are not. More than this, some of them, such as Edwin, Elfwine, are found amongst the allied German populations of the Continent, and that during the Pagan period.

It must be remembered, then, that there are no Hengests, Horsas, Æscs, Cissas, Stufs, Ports, &c, when we come to the times of the Alfreds and Edwards; and no Alfieds and Edwards when we are amongst the Ports and Stufs, &c.

§ 42 Another objection lies in the eponymic character of certain pre-historic names. It has been seen what certain names belonging to the Pagan portion of the so-called Anglo-Saxon history are *not*. They are not of the same character as those that belong to the historic era. Let us now ask what they *are*. They are, in some cases, what is called *eponymies* (*ἐπωνύμια*); or, if we prefer the adjective, we may say that they are *eponymic*, *i. e.* names never borne by individuals at

all, but coined by certain speculators in history, archæology, or genealogy, under the hypothesis that the names of certain facts or places are accounted for by the supposition that certain individuals, identically or similarly named, originated them. In this way *Hellen* is the eponymus of the *Hellenes* (or Greeks); not that such a progenitor ever existed, but that some early speculator on the origin of the Greek nation conceived that he did, and accounted for a name and nation (the nation being, in his eyes, but a large family) accordingly.

Our illustrations, however, may be taken from nearer home, from the facts of the question before us. A locality, with certain traces of some action that took place in its neighbourhood, gives origin to a name—a name of an individual who may never have existed. A memorial of unknown import has to be accounted for, and a hero, accordingly, does or suffers something on the spot in question, and thereby gives his name to it. Thus, in the particular question before us, from the marks of a burial, and the name *Horsted*, we get the individual *Horsa*. The chronicler says, that the place was called from the man, the cutic that the presence of the man was imagined to suit the place. Upon this point Beda's wording of Nothelm's or Albinus' report, is as follows —

Translation

Then first leaders are said to have been two brothers, Hengast and Horsa. Of these, Horsa was afterwards killed in wars by the Britons, and has, to this day, in the eastern parts of Kent, a monument marked by his name. But they were the sons of Wihtgils, whose father was Witta, whose father was Weeta, whose father was Woden, from whom the royal families of many countries derive their origin.

In the Original

"*Duces fuisse perhibentur eorum primi duo fratres Hengast et Horsa. e quibus Horsa postea occisus in bello a Brittonibus, hactenus in Orientalibus Cantia partibus monumentum habet suo nomine insigne. Erant autem filii Wihtgils, cujus pater Witta, cujus pater Weeta, cujus pater Woden, de cujus stirpe multarum provinciarum regum genus originem duxit.*"—*Hist. Eccl.* i. 15.

The words beginning with *v* are put in italics for a reason which will soon appear.

That this story of Horsa may have been found on Kentish soil (though neither *Hengistbury* and *Horsted* are really in Kent), is probable enough. So, also, allowing for the difference of locality, may other local stories

§ 43. Horsa's name, however, suspicious as it is, is less so

than that of another individual that of *Port*, as it appears in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle.—

A D 501—Hér com *Port* on Bictene, and his n suna Bieda and Mægla mid n scipum, on þære stowe þe is gecweden *Portes-muða* [and sona land namon] and [þær] ofslagon anne gionguc Bictase monnan, swiðe æðelne monnan

Translation

A D 501—This year *Port* and his two sons, Bieda and Mægla, came to Britain with two ships, at a place which is called Portsmouth, and they soon effected a landing, and they there slew a young British man of high nobility

Now *Portus* must have been, simply, the Latin name of *Portsmouth* long anterior to A D 501

But the landing of a man named *Port* at a place called *Portus* is no impossibility. Granted It is only highly improbable—the improbability being heightened by the strangeness of the name itself—heightened also by the following fact —

Just as a man named *Port* hits (out of all the landing-places in England) upon a spot with a name like his own, a man named *Wihthgar* does the same.

In the original

A D 530—Her Cerdic and Cynric genamon *Withe* Ealand, and ofslagon feala men on *Wihth-garasbyrig*

A D 534—Her Cerdic [se forma West-Sexana cyng] forðfeirðe, and Cynric his sunu [feng to rice, and] nesode forð xxvi wintia, and he saldon hiera tuæm nefum Stufe and *Wihthgare* [eall] *Wihth*-Ealand

A D 544—Her *Wihthgar* forðfeirðe, and hene mon bebyrðe on *Wyth-gara-burg*

Translation

A D 530—This year Cerdic and Cynric conquered the island of *Wight*, and slew many men at *Wihth-garas-burg*

A D 534—This year Cerdic, the first king of the West-Saxons, died, and Cynric, his son, succeeded to the kingdom, and reigned from that time twenty-six years, and they gave the whole island of *Wight* to their two grandsons, Stuf and *Wihthgar*

A D 544—This year *Wihthgar* died, and they buried him in *Wihth-gara-byrig*

Now *Wihth* is the Anglo-Saxon form of the name of *Vectis* = Isle of *Wight*, a name found in the Latin writers long anterior to A D 530, whilst *gar* is a form of *were* (or *waras*) = *inhabitants* Hence, just as *Kent* = the *County Kent*, and *Cantware* = the inhabitants of that county or (*Canticolæ*), so does *Wihth* = *Vectis*, and *Wihthgare* = *Vecticolæ* Yet the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle makes it a man's name

§ 44 The names of *Port* and *Wihthgar* give us the strongest facts in favour of the suggested hypothesis, viz —the *ex post facto* evolution of personal names out of local ones

The following instances are somewhat less conclusive —

In the original.

A D 477 — Hei com Ælla to Bretten-land and his in suna, *Cymen*, and Wlenc-ing, and *Cissa* mid in seipum, on þa stowe þe is nemned *Cymenes-ora*, and þær otislogon monige Walas, and sume on fleame bedriton on þone wudu þe is ge-nemned Andredes-leage

A D 495 — Hei cuomon twegen aldormen on Dietene, *Cerdic* and *Cynric* his sunu mid v seipum in þone stede þe is gecweden *Cerides-ora*, and þy iðan dæge gefuhtun wid Walum

Translation

A D 477 — This year Ælla, and his three sons *Cymen* and Wlencing, and *Cissa*, came to the land of Britain with three ships, at a place which is named *Cymenes-ora*, and there slew many Welsh, and some they drove in flight into the wood that is named *Andreds-lea*

A D 495 — This year two ealdormen came to Britain, *Cerdic*, and *Cynric* his son, with five ships, at a place which is called *Cerides-ora*, and the same day they fought against the Welsh

Here, the men are Wlencing, Cymen, and Cissa, the names *Cymenes-ora*, and *Cissanceaster*, geographical terms, and the old forms of the present *Keynser* and *Chichester*. This is suspicious, and it becomes more so when we find that the second elements are Latin, *e g.* -ora in *Cymenes-ora* and -ceaster in *Cissan-ceaster*

§ 45 In the extract about Horsa and his burial-place, the names of his ancestors all began with V—Victgils, Vitta, Vecta, &c. How come the alliterations? Because the pedigrees are pieces of poetry rather than history; it being the rule in Anglo-Saxon prosody that in every two lines two words should begin with the same letter. Horsa's pedigree was no more alliterative than many others. *E g.* —

1

Ida was Eopping,
Eoppa Esing,
Esa was Ingwing,
Ingwi Angenwitting,
Angenwit Alocing,
Aloc Benocing,
Benoc Branding,
Brand Bældæging,
Bældæg Wodenning,
Woden Fieoðolafing,
Fieoðolaf Fieoðowulfing,
Fieoðowulf Finning,
Finn Godulfing,
Godulf Geating

A S Chronicle, A D 547.

2

Cerdic wæs Cymnices fodei
Cerdic Elesing,
Elesa Esling,
Esla Gwising,
Gwis Wiging,
Wig Fieawning,
Fieawne Fieoðgaring
Fieoðogar Branding,
Brand Bældæging,
Bældæg Wodenning

A S Chronicle, A D 552

3

Ælla was 77ing,
 77ile 77æficing,
 77æficea 77ælgicing,
 77ælgils 77æfterficing,
 77æfterficinga 77æfinghug,
 77æfing 77æficing,

77æfald 77igegating,
 77igegant 77æbðaging,
 77æbðæg 77igegating,
 77igegau 77ægðaging,
 77ægðag 77oðening,
 77oðen 77iðowulling

A S Chronicle, A.D. 560

Coolwulf's genealogy, to be found under A.D. 597, is of the same kind, so is Penda's, A.D. 626; so are many others.

§ 46. That there are objections to the criticism which thus impugns the early accounts of the Angle invasions is not to be denied. It may be added, however, that they can always be met by counter-objections. Such being the case, it is submitted that the original remarks upon the unsatisfactory character of the early history are sufficient for our present object. This is limited. It is not a history of Great Britain that I am writing, but one of the English language. Hence the *whole* question as to the literary and historical value of the early writers is too wide. The extent to which they are sufficient or insufficient to prove certain specific facts is all that need be investigated; and the character of such facts is the measure of the amount of criticism necessary to invalidate their authority. One of these facts (real or supposed) is the date of A.D. 449, for the *first* landing of the first ancestors of the present English. It is only in appearance that this is a simple one. That certain Germans landed on a certain part of the coast of Kent is the simple straightforward part of it. That they were the *first* who did so is quite a different matter.

§ 47. Our main guide in these matters is the date of the evacuation of Britain by the Romans. The passages which bear most especially upon this point are the following.—

Translation

The Britons, up to this time, torn by various massacres and events, are reduced to the dominion of the Saxons.

In the Original

Britanniæ usque ad hoc tempus variis cladibus eventibusque laceratæ in ditionem Saxonum rediguntur.—*Proper. Aquitanus, &c., ANN. 441.*

Translation

To Ætius, thrice Consul, the groans of the Britons. The Barbarians drive us to the sea. The sea drives us back to the Barbarians. Between these arise two sorts of death. We are either slaughtered or drowned.

In the original

Agitio, ter Consul, gemitus Britannorum. Repellunt nos Barbari ad mare,

repellit nos mare ad Barbaros, inter hæc oriuntur duo genera finium aut
jagulamui, aut meigimui — *Historia Gildæ*, xvii

The first of these, by an almost cotemporary author, gives us an earlier date than the one usually assigned.

CHAPTER VI

GERMAN ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE — THE PARTS OF
GERMANY FROM WHICH IT WAS INTRODUCED — EXTERNAL EVI-
DENCE — THE CARLOVINGIAN ANNALISTS. — THE SLAVES — THE
DANES — THE FRISLANS — THE SAXONS

§ 48 THERE is no such thing as a definite and undeniable chronology for the details of the Anglo-Saxon conquest of Britain, *i e.* there is no account so authentic as to preclude criticism. Neither is there such a thing as an ethnological map of Germany for the fifth century, nor yet is there any accurate geographical description. Of the proofs of this, a sketch has just been given, and if the writer have made out his case, the whole early history of the English Language, and we may add of the English People, has to be got at by circuitous and indirect methods, by criticism, by inference.

§ 49. Our evidence is of two sorts — The testimony of writers, and the comparison of language, manners, customs, laws, &c. In other words, there is *external* evidence and *internal* evidence. I begin with the former

§ 50 If we lay out of consideration a few isolated notices, we shall find that the external testimony to the history, geography, and topography of Germany for the nearest times *subsequent* to the Angle occupation of England, begins with the Carolingian dynasty, and lies in the writings of those authors who were most employed in recording the acts of Charlemagne. They consist, for the most part, of chronicles, under the titles of *Annales Laurissenses*, *Annales Einhardi*, *Annales Mettenses*, *Annales Fuldenses*, *Chronicon Moissiacense*, *Annales Petaviani*, *Alanmannici*, *Guelfyrbytanni*, *Nazarii*, copying more or less from either each other or from some common source, and consequently relating nearly the same events. I do not say that these give good light. I only say that it is the

best we can get. They are to be found in Pertz's *Monumenta Historica Germanica*, and all, or nearly all, emanate from Frank writers—from Christian Franks.

§ 51. The latter half of the seventh century is the time, and Northern Germany the place, under consideration. Christianity, and the influence of Roman civilization, have extended no further in the direction of the Elbe than the northern boundary of the empire of the Franks, and this is why our information comes through Frank sources. Thus, too, is why our nomenclature is Frank—an important point to bear in mind. There is Paganism which has few or no records on one side, and there is a Christian empire with a nascent literature on the other. The notices of the former come through the latter. We must look, then, on ancient Northern Germany as the Franks looked at it. Now the districts which lay to the north of their own frontier, districts which they eventually succeeded in reducing, but which at first they only knew as the country of enemies and pagans, were four: 1. Slavonia. 2. Denmark. 3. Friesland. 4. Saxony.

§ 52. *Slavonia*, a fact of which we must never lose sight, extended to the west far beyond its present frontiers. Not only were Brandenburg, Pomerania, Mecklenburg, and Luneburg Slavonic, but Lauenburg was so as well. South of Hamburg no part of the Elbe was German. The eastern third, at least, of Holstein was Slavonic. The present sites of Lubeck and Kiel were Slavonic. All up to the little river Bille was Slavonic. Roughly speaking, all to the east of a line drawn from Kiel to Coburg was Slavonic.

§ 53. *Denmark*—Denmark was bounded by the Eyder, or if not exactly by the Eyder, by a line a little to the north of it. From the Treen to the Slesse ran, at a later period, the *Dannevirke*, and, earlier still, the *Kurvirke*—the lines of defence against the Germans—the Danish analogues of the Picts' Wall in Britain. Meanwhile, the *Gammelvold* protected the peninsula of Svanse; whilst the *Danischwald* lay between Kiel and the Eggenfiord. For anything but minute philology this is enough. For Saxony, as distinguished from Denmark, the Eyder and the Dannevirke give a boundary. Whether, however, there may not have been Angles to the north of the Slesse will be considered in the sequel.

§ 54. *Friesland*—In every direction, Friesland seems to have extended further than it does now. How far it extended inland, is uncertain. The coast, however, at least as far as the

Elbe, or possibly as far as the Eyder, seems to have been Frisian. Helgoland, under the name of Fositesland, is said to be—"in confinio Frisonum atque Danorum"—*Pertz*, 2 4 13. Again—"in confinio Frisonum et Danorum ad quandam insulam quæ . . . Fositesland appellatur."—*Alcuin, Vita S. Willibrordi*, c 80 Now, although an *island* on the confines of two countries is no good landmark, the texts that give it suggest the likelihood of the Danish and Frisian frontiers having touched one another. Whether the division was ethnological rather than political, is another question. The relation of the Frisian area to the Saxon, along with other details, will be considered more minutely as we proceed.

§ 55. *Saxony*—In the eyes of a Frank, Saxony and Friesland contained all those portions of Germany which, partly from a difference of dialect, partly from their paganism, and partly from their independence, stood in contrast to the organized empire of the Carolingians. In the eyes of a Frank, a Saxon was an enemy to be coerced, a heathen to be converted. What more the term meant is uncertain. It was used by the Franks, having been previously used by the Romans and the Britons. That it was native to the Saxons themselves there is no reason for believing.

§ 56. Saxony, from the Frank point of view, fell into two primary and into six subordinate divisions. There was the Saxony *beyond the Elbe*, and there was the Saxony *on this side of the Elbe*. The former was called *Nordalbingia*. This is a compound of the word *Nord* (=North), and *Albis* (=Elbe). The termination *-ing* is a gentile form. It denotes the populations *north of the Lower Elbe* and *south of the Lower Eyder*, in other words, the occupants of the western side of the present Duchy of Holstein.

The Nordalbingians fell into three divisions —

1. The *Thiudmarsî*, or *Thiutmarsgi*, occupants of *Ditmarsch*.

2. The *Holsati*, *Holzati*, or *Holsatas*, from whom the present Duchy of Holstein takes its name.

3. The *Stormarii*, or people of *Stormar*, to whom Hamburg was the capital.

The Saxons to the *south* of the Elbe lay chiefly in Hanover and Westphalia. They fell into three divisions, of which an unknown poet of the tenth century, himself a Saxon, and quoted as *Poeta Saxo*, thus writes:—

Translation

The general division contains three peoples,
 Known by which Saxony flourished of yore,
 The names now remain, the old virtue has gone back.
 They call those *Westfalans* who remain
 In the Eastern districts, whose boundary is not far
 Distant from the river Rhine, the region towards the rising sun
 The *Osterleudi* inhabit, whom some
 Call by the name *Ostfahan*, whose frontiers
 The treacherous nation of the Slaves harasses
 Between the aforesaid, in the mid region, dwell
 The *Angraruns*, the third population of the Saxons of these
 The country is joined to the lands of the Franks on the South
 The same is joined to the Ocean on the North

In the original

Generalis habet populos divisio ternos,
 Insignita quibus Saxonia floruit olim,
 Nomina nunc remanent virtus antiqua recessit
 Demique *Westfalos* vocitant in parte manentes
 Occidua, quorum non longe terminus amne
 A Rheno distat, regionem solis ad ortum
 Inhabitant *Osterleudi*, quos nomine quidam
Ostiales alii vocitant, confinia quorum
 Infestant conjuncta suis gens perfida Slavi
 Inter predictos media regione morantur
Angrani, populus Saxonum tertius, horum
 Patria Francorum terris sociatus ab Austro,
 Oceanoque eadem conjungitur ex Aquilone

In respect to the Nordalbingians, he writes:—

Translation.

A certain Saxon people, which from the South
 The Elbe cuts off, as separate towards the North Pole
 These we call *Nordalbingi* in our country's tongue

In the original.

Saxonum populus quidam, quos claudit ab Austro
 Albis, sejunctum positos Aquilonis ad axem
 Hos *Nordalbingos* patrio sermone vocamus

§ 57. With the boundaries, then, of *Westphalia* we get the boundaries of Saxony on the *south* and *south-west*. The following notices help us towards obtaining them.—

(1)

Translation.

While this was going on, there came a holy and learned priest from the nation of the Angles, by name *Leofun*, to the Abbot Gregory, saying that a command had been given to him from the Lord, in a terrible manner, and in a

triple admonition, to help the people to the true doctrine *on the boundary between the Franks and the Saxons, along the river Ysel, &c.*

In the original

Dum talia gerebantur, venit quidam presbiter (san)ctus et doctus de genere Anglorum nomine Leafwinus ad Abbatem Gregorium, dicens sibi Domino terribiliter timere admonitione fuisse præceptum, ut in confinio *Francorum atque Saxonum secus fluvium Isam*, plebs in doctrina prodesse deberet, &c

As the narrative goes on, it states that, in the first instance an oratory was built for the saint at a place called *Hvilpa* on the west of the aforesaid river; afterwards a church, at *Deven-ter*, on the east of it—a church which the pagan Saxons of the parts around succeeded in burning.

The particular Frank district which the Ysel divided from the Saxon country bore the name *Sul-land*, which has (either rightly or wrongly) been translated *the land of the Sul-i*, i. e. the famous *Salion* Franks who enacted the famous *Solic* law.

§ 58 (2) *The Locality of the Chattuarii*—On the Niers, between the Maas and Rohr, lay the land of the *Chattuarii*, *Hazzuari*, *Attuarii*, or *Hetware*, occupants of the country about Geizelfurt. They were continually attacked by the Saxons. “Saxones vastaverunt terram *Chatuuariorum*.” (*Annales Sancti Amandi*, A D 715.) That these were Saxons from the neighbourhood, I infer from the following passages, which make the Chattuarian district a *March* or frontier land—“trado res proprietatis meæ in pago *Hattuaria* in Odeheimero *Marea*, in villâ quæ vocatur Geizelfurt, quæ sita est supra fluvium Nersa.” (See Zeuss in v. *Chattuarii*.)

§ 59 *The Bructeri*—The occupancy of the Bructeri was the district between the Ruhr and the Lippe. They can scarcely have come under the term Frank, inasmuch as in the eighth century, they were still Pagans. On the other hand, they are specially excluded, and that by Bede, from the Old Saxons.

Sund-beitus, accepto episcopatu de Britannia regressus, non multa post, ad gentem *Boructuarianorum* accessit, ac multos eorum prædicando, ad viam veritatis perduxit. Sed expugnatis, non longo post tempore *Boructuarius a gente Antiquorum Saxonum*, dispersi sunt quolibet in qui verbum receperant.

Hist Eccl 5-12

They also are mentioned in a life of St Boniface; and also by Aribo, Bishop of Freising, A D. 782. The *pagus Boraltra*—*in pago Borterga villa quæ dicitur Custorp*—

villa quæ dicitur Porricbeci in pago Borotra—Holtheim, Hamarathi, Mulnhusun in pago Boiactron—in pago Boratre, in villa vocante Ismereleke . . et in eodem pago, in villa quæ dicitur Anadopa . . similiter et in eodem pago et in villa cujus vocabulum est Geiske—in pagis Dreini et Boroctia in Seliherm, in Stockheim—in pago Borhtergo curtem . . Ericseli in provincia Boructuariorum . in vivo Ratingen . in quâdam Boructuariorum villa Velsenberg nomine, are all given by Zeuss. One of them classes the *Boructuarii* along with the Frisians, Rugians, Danes, Huns, and Old Saxons as pagans.

For all this I am inclined to let the original statement stand and to hold that *in the eyes* of the Franks*, there was nothing north of their own country that was not either Saxon or Frisian. And as, over and above their paganism, it was from Britain that the Boructuarii received their Christianity, I am inclined to make them more Saxon than aught else. The name, notwithstanding the shortness of the middle syllable, which will be seen hereafter, was evidently a compound after the fashion of *Cantuarii* = *Cantwære* = *inhabitants of Kent*, and stood as *Bructwære* in the native tongue.

§ 60 *The Locality of the Chamavi* —The last appearance of this name, *totidem literis*, is in Gregory of Tours. The district, however, of *Hamelund*, or the parts about Zutphen and Deventer, has taken its name from them. There is no doubt as to where it was, since Zeuss gives—“*in Sutfeno in pago Hameland—in Duisburg in pago Hameland—in Dawindre in eodem pago Hameland—abbatiam Attene juxta Rhenum fluvium in pago Hamaland.*” This is where the earlier notices left them; notices which associated them with the *Franks*—the Franks, however, of the Lower Empire rather than those of the Carvolingian period. The following extract makes the locality a Saxon one—“*Deodoricum ex pago Saxonice Hamaland*”—*Sigeberti Vita Theodori Mettensis Episcopi—apud Leibnitz.* I. 294.

§ 61. Boundary on the south-east. Approximate.

Translation

This year, our Lord and King, Karl, having collected an army, marched into *Saxony*, upon a place called *Padersborn*, where, having pitched his camp, he sent out his son Karl, across the *Weser*, in order that such heathens as he found in those parts he might bring into subjection.

In the original

In hoc anno dominus (sic) rex Karolus collecto exercitu venit in *Saxoniam*

in loco qui dicitur *Putresbrunnus*, ibi castrametatus, inde etiam mittens Karolum filium suum trans fluvium Wiseram, ut quotquot usdem partibus de infidelibus suis invenissent, sue servituti subjugalet

Hesse, although other than Frank in respect to its dialects, was Frank in its political relations, but not wholly. The valley of the Diemel was half Saxon. There were two *pagi*; one on the Upper Diemel, which was Frank, and the other on the Lower Diemel, which was Saxon. The former was—

“——Francorum pagus qui dicitur Hassi’—*Porta Sive*.

The latter was pagus Hessi *Saxonicus*. Meanwhile, the town of Wolfsanger was both Frank and Saxon —“ad villam cujus est vocabulum Vulvisanger quam tunc temporis *Francis et Saxones pariter habitare videbantur*”—*Dipl Carol Magn*

§ 62. *Saxony and Friesland*—Where were they separated? The town of Meppen was *Saxon*.

Translation

There is a well-known town in Saxony, named *Meppen*, in the neighbourhood of which the holy priest, on his journey to Friesland, had arrived

In the original

Oppidum est in Saxonia, notum quam plurimum, *Meppen* nominatum, in cujus vicinia, dum antistes sanctus Frieslandam pergens devenerat—*Ita Sancti Ludgeri, Pertz, vol II p 419*

Meanwhile, Angraria, or the parts about Engern and Minden, divided *Westphalia* from *Eastphalia*.

CHAPTER VII

GERMAN ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE—PARTS, ETC—
EXTERNAL EVIDENCE—WRITERS PRIOR TO THE ANGLE CONQUEST—TACITUS—THE ANGRIVARI, ETC—THE ANGLI, ETC—
PTOLEMY, ETC—THE SAXONS

§ 63. So much for the notices of ancient Germany subsequent to the Conquest of England. What was ancient Germany anterior to that event? What, in the time of the classical writers, was that particular district which the Franks of the Carolingian age called Saxony? What was it in the eyes of Tacitus and Ptolemy? Let us put these two extremes together,

and, perhaps, we may throw a light over the intermediate period.

§ 64. *The Angrivarii, Frisii, and Chauci*—The author with whom we begin is Tacitus; who gives us the *Angrivarii*. They are the Angrarii of the Carolingian writers. They are also the occupants of the parts about *Engern* in modern geography. Lying in the heart of *Saxonia*, and being found in both the earliest and the latest geographies, they take the first place in our inquiries. The Frisii go along with them.

Translation

The *Angrivarii* and *Chamavi* are backed immediately by the *Dulgubini* and *Chasuarii*, and by other nations not equally capable of being named. The *Frisians* take them up in front. The *Great and Little Frisians* are named from their relative strengths. Each touches the Ocean, and lies along the Rhine. They also encircle immense lakes—lakes which the Roman fleets have yet to explore.

In the original

Angrivarios et *Chamavos* a teigo *Dulgubini* et *Chasuarii* cludunt, alæque gentes hand perinde memoratæ. A fronte *Frisii* excipiunt. *Majoribus minoribusque Frisus* vocabulum est, ex modo unum utæque nationes usque, ad Oceanum Rheno prætexunt, ambiuntque immensos insuper lacus, et Romanis classibus nondum navigatos.

Contiguous to the Frisians, and, like the Frisians, extended along the coast, though dipping further inland, came the *Chauci*.

Translation

The nation of the *Chauci*, although it began where the Frisians end, and covers an immense tract of the sea-board, overlies the frontiers of all the nations I have enumerated, even until it winds itself into the land of the *Chatti*. So vast a space do the *Chauci* not only hold, but fill—a people, amongst those of Germany, of the noblest

In the original.

Chaucorum gens, quamquam incipiat a *Frisus* ac partem litoris occupet, omnium, quas exposui, gentium lateribus obtenditur, donec in *Chattos* usque sinuetur. Tam immensum terrarum spatium non tenent tantum *Chauci*, sed et implent: populus inter Germanos nobilissimus.

§ 65. *The Cherusci and Fosi*.—From Tacitus

Translation

On the side of the *Chauci* and *Chatti*, the *Cherusci* have, for a long time, indulged in an excessive and weakening state of peace, unharassed—a peace more easy than safe. Amid the unresisted and the strong you may maintain a false repose. Where action goes on, moderation and probity are the prerogative of the stronger. Hence, those who were once *the good and just Cherusci* are now the *idle and foolish*. With the victorious *Chatti* their good fortune has taken the name of wisdom. The *Fosi* were drawn in with the

downfall of the Cherusci—the Fosi, a nation of the frontier, the Fosi who, then inferiors during their prosperity are, on far grounds then follows in adversity

In the original

In lateis Chaucorum Chattorumque Cherusci militiam ac mercentem duu pacem illa cessit nutierunt idque iucundius, quam tutius fuit, quia inter impotentes et validos falso quiescas ubi manu agitur, modestia ac probitas nomina superioris sunt Ita qui olim 'boni atque Cherusci,' nunc merces ac stulti' vocantur Chattis victoribus fortuna in sapientiam cessit Tracti iunã Cheruscorum et Fosi, continuiã gens, alveisatam totum ex æquo socii, cum in secundis immoies fuissent

§ 66 *The Bructeri*.—From Tacitus.

Translation

By the side of the Tencteri the *Bructeri* were once to be found Now as it is said the Chamavi and Angivarii have replaced them, the Bructeri being driven away and wholly cut off—to the great joy of the nations on their frontier, arising from either the hatred of their pride or the delights of the plunder, or, it may be, from the favour of the gods upward For they indulged us with the spectacle of the fight—a fight wherein more than forty thousand fell—not under the arms and harness of the Romans, but more magnificently as a sight before their eyes Long live, among the nations who have no love for us at least, such hatred against each other! When the fate of the empire fails, all that its fortune can give is the discord of its enemies

In the original

Juxta Tencteros Bructeri olim occurrerant nunc Chamavos et Angivarios immigrasse narratur, pulsus Bructeris ac penitus excisis vicinarum consensu nationum, seu superbiæ odio, seu prædæ dulcedine, seu favore quodam eiga nos devorum nam ne spectaculo quidem præli invidere, super xl milia, non armis telisque Romanis, sed, quod magnificentius est, oblectationi oculisque ceciderunt Maneat quæso, duetque gentibus, si non amor nostri, at certe odium sui quando, urgentibus impetu fati, nihil jam præstare Fortuna majus potest quam hostium discordiam

The *Tabula Peutingeriana* gives the form *Bructeri* Constantine, in the beginning of the fourth century, gains some advantages over them, which his panegyrist makes the most of The *Notitia* also names them. Again—

Agrippinam,igente maxime hieme, potuit transgressus Rhenum Bructeros, ripæ proximos, pagum etiam quem Chamavi incolunt, depopulatus est—*Gregori Turon* 2 9

Sidonius Apollinaris, too, alludes to them

“——— Tolingus.

Bructerus ulvosã vel quem Næci alluit unda

Præcipuat Francus —*Cham* vi 324

This is in enumeration of the allies of Attila.

Ptolemy divides them into the Greater and Lesser Bructeri; the Chauci and Fisis being the only Germans besides who are so classified. He places them to the north of the Sigambri.

“ ——— venit accola sylvæ
Bructerus, ingentes Albi liquoris Cherusci ”
Claudian, *II^o Consul Honor* 450

§ 67. We pass now to the parts lying on each side of a line drawn from Verden to Luneberg, of which the occupancy, in the time of Tacitus, is a matter of comparative certainty for one population only, but that is an all-important one—the Angli. They are not mentioned alone in Tacitus, whose list runs thus—Angli, Varini, Reudigni, Aviones, Eudoses, Suardones, Nuithones—all uncertain populations. What does the most learned ethnologist know of a people called the *Eudoses*? Nothing. He speculates, perhaps, on a letter-change, and fancies that by prefixing a *Ph*, and inserting an *n* he can convert the name into *Phundusir*. But what does he know of the *Phundusi*? Nothing, except that by ejecting the *ph* and omitting the *n* he can reduce them to *Eudoses*. Then come the *Aviones*, of whom we know little, but whom, by omission and rejection, we can identify with the *Cobandri*, of whom we know less. What light comes from the *Nuithones*? What from the *Suardones*? It is not going too far if we say that, were it not for the conquest of England, the Angles of Germany would have been known to the ethnologist just as the *Aviones* are, *i. e.* very little, that, like the *Eudoses*, they might have had their name tampered with, and, that, like the *Suardones* and *Nuithones*, they might have been anything or nothing in the way of ethnological affinity, historical development, and geographical locality.

Of the external testimony bearing upon the *Angli* of Germany, nine-tenths is from a single passage, and every word in that single passage which applies to them applies to the *Eudoses*, *Aviones*, *Reudigni*, *Suardones*, and *Nuithones* as well.

Translation.

With the Lombards it is different. The smallness of their numbers is then glory. Gift by nations as numerous as they are strong, it is not by subservience, but by blows and battle, that they hold their own. Then come the Reudigni, the Aviones, the *Angli*, the Varini, the Eudoses, the Suardones, and the Nuithones, protected by either rivers or forests. There is nothing remarkable here except their common worship of Heath or Mother Earth. They believe that she interposes in the affairs of mankind and makes a circuit of the world. There is in the Ocean a holy grove, and in it a consecrated wagon.

shrouded with a pall and touched by a priest only. He it is who knows that the goddess has her presence in the shrine and he it is who, when she is drawn by her self follows her up with exceeding great reverence. The days are then joyful, and the spots which she deigns to visit and allows to receive her, festive. No wars are waged, no arms taken up, every sword is shut up, peace and quiet alone known alone loved, until such time as that self-same priest gives back the goddess to her temple, seated with her intercourse with mankind. Then are the wagon, and the pall and if we may believe it, the deity itself, washed in the secret lake. Slaves officiate. Their office done, the same lake sucks them in too. Hence a mysterious terror—a holy wonder. What is that which is seen only by those who are about to perish?

In the original

Contra Langobardos paucitas nobilitat plurimus ac valentissimus nationibus cuncti, non per obsequium, sed proelis et periclitando tuti sunt. Reudum demde, et Aviones, et Angli, et Vanni, et Endoses, et Saardones, et Niuthone, fluminibus aut silvis immuniti nec quidquam notabilis in singulis, nisi quod in commune Heithum, id est, Terram matroni columæ, canaque intervenne rebus hominum, inveli populis arbitrantur. Est in insula Oceanus castum nemus, dicatum in eo vehiculum, veste contextum, attingere uni sacerdoti concessum. In adesse penetrali deam intelligit, vectantque bobus ferunt multa cum veneratione prosequuntur. Læti tunc dies, festa loca, quæcumque adventu hospitioque dignatur. Non bella ineunt, non animæ sumunt clausum omne ferrum, pax et quies tunc tantum nota, tunc tantum amata, donec idem sacerdos satiata conversatione mortalium deam templo reddat. mox vehiculum et vestes, et, si credere velis, numen ipsum secreto lacu ablutum. Servi ministrant, quos statim idem lacus haurit. Aicanus hunc tenet, sanctaque ignorantia, quid sit id, quod tantum perituri vident.

§ 68 *Ptolemy's notice of the Angles is as follows:—*

Translation

Of the nations of the interior the greatest are those of the SUEVI Angli (who lie east of the Langobardi, stretching northwards to the middle course of the River Elbe) and of the SUEVI Semnones, who reach from the aforesaid part of the Elbe, eastward, to the river Subus, and that of the Buguntæ, in continuation as far as the Vistula.

In the original

Τῶν δὲ ἐν-ὸς καὶ μεσογειῶν, ἐθνῶν μέγιστα μὲν ἐστὶ τό, τε τῶν Σουήβων τῶν Ἀγγεῖλων, οἳ εἰσὶν ἀνατολικώτεροι τῶν Λαγγοβάρδων ἀνατείνοντες πρὸς τὰς ἄρκτους μέχρι τῶν μέσων τοῦ Ἀλβίου ποταμοῦ καὶ τὸ τῶν Σουήβων τῶν Σεμνόνων, οἵτινες διήκουσι μετὰ τὴν Ἀλβιν ἀπὸ τοῦ εἰρημένου μέρους πρὸς ἀνατολὰς μέχρι τοῦ Σουήβου ποταμοῦ καὶ τὸ τῶν Βουγούντων τὰ ἐφεξῆς καὶ μέχρι τοῦ Οὐιστούλα κατεχόντων.

§ 69 The Saxons of Ptolemy lay to the north of the Elbe, on the neck of the Khersonese, whilst the Sigulones occupied the Khersonese itself, westwards.

Then come—

2 The Sabalingii, then—

- 3 *The Kobandi*; above these—
4. *The Khuli*, and above them, but more to the west—
5. *The Phundusii*; more to the east—
6. *The Kharudes*, and most to the north of all—
- 7 *The Kimbri*
8. *The Phurolini* lay next to the Saxons, between the rivers Khalusus and Suebus.

Translation

"The Frisians occupy the sea-coast, beyond the Busaktoi ('Bructeri') as far as the river Ems. After these the Lesser Chauci, as far as the river Weser, then the Greater Chauci, as far as the Elbe, then, in order, on the neck of the Cimbrie Chersonese, the *Saxons*, then, on the Chersonese itself, beyond the Saxons, the Sigulones, on the west, then the Sabalingi, then the Kobandi, beyond whom the Khali, and even beyond these, more to the west, the Phundusi, more to the east, the Kharudes, and the most northern of all, the Kimbri. And, after the Saxons, from the river Khalusus to the Suebus, the Pharoduni.

In the original

Τὴν δὲ παρωκεανῆτιν κατέχουσιν ὑπὲρ μὲν τοὺς Βουσактῆρους οἱ Φρίσσιοι μέχρι τοῦ Ἀμασίου ποταμοῦ μετὰ δὲ τούτους Καῦχοι οἱ μικροὶ μέχρι τοῦ Οὐισούργιος ποταμοῦ εἰτα Καῦχοι οἱ μείζους μέχρι τοῦ Ἀλβίου ποταμοῦ ἐφεξῆς δὲ ἐπὶ τὸν αἰχένα τῆς Κιμβρικῆς Χερσονήσου Σάξονες αὐτὴν δὲ τὴν Χερσονήσον ὑπὲρ μὲν τοὺς Σάξονας Σιγούλωνες ἀπὸ δυσμῶν, εἰτα Σαβαλίγγιοι, εἰτα Κοβάνδοι, ὑπὲρ οὓς Χάλοι, καὶ ἔτι ὑπὲρ τούτους δυσμικώτεροι μὲν Φουνδοῦσοι, ἀνατολικώτεροι δὲ Χαροῦδες, πάντων δὲ ἀρκτικώτεροι Κίμβριοι Μετὰ δὲ τοὺς Σάξονας ἀπὸ τοῦ Χαλούσου ποταμοῦ μέχρι τοῦ Σονήβου ποταμοῦ Φαροδεῦοι

In another place the three islands of the Saxons are mentioned—*Σαξόνων νῆσοι τρεῖς*.

§ 70.—Except the Cimbri, all these populations, *with their names as they stand in Ptolemy*, are strange to Tacitus. I say *with their names as they stand in Ptolemy*; because by certain assumptions, more or less legitimate, three of them, as we have already seen, have been considered as identified with certain names found elsewhere.

§ 71. Respecting the Sabalingii, I have an hypothesis of my own. Transpose the *b* and the *l* and the word becomes *Sa-lab-ing-ii*. What of this?

1. The Slavonic name of the *Elbe* is *Laba*; and—

2. The Slavonic for *Transalban*, as a term for the population *beyond the Elbe*, would be *Sa-lab-ingii*. This compound is common. The Fins of Karelia are called *Za-volok-ian*, because they live beyond the *volok* or *watershed*. The Kosaks of the Dneiper are called *Za-porog-ian*, because they live beyond

the *porog* or *waterfall*. The populations in question I imagine to have been called *Sa-lab-ingian*, because they lived beyond the Laba or Elbe

This is hypothesis ; but we must remember that a name closely akin to *Sa-lab-ingian* actually occurs at the beginning of the historical period. The population of the Duchy of Lauenburg is, then, Slavonic. So is that of south-eastern Holstein. So is that of Luneburg. Now the name of these Slavonians of the Elbe is *Po-lab-ingii* (*on the Elbe*), just as *Po-mora-nia* is the country *on the sea*. Of the *Po-labingians*, then, the *Sa-labingii* were (by hypothesis) the section belonging to that side of the Elbe to which the tribe that used the term did *not* belong.

§ 72. Upon the *Khali* I have little to say—little, too (in *this* place), upon the *Kimbr*

The *Kharudes* bear a name which seems, word for word, to be *Heorot* ; a term which may apply to any well-wooded country, such as Holstein—a term, itself derived from *holt* = *holtz* = *wood*

§ 73. *Sigulones*, too, as a *name*, is one upon which no light has been shed. The locality, however, of the population which bore it is important. The *Western* part of Holstein in the ninth century was not only the pre-eminently German portion of the Peninsula, but it was the *only* German portion. To the north, beyond the Eyder, lay the Danes. To the east, between the Segeburg Heath and the sea, lay the Slavonians of the parts about the Ploner Lake. Unless we carry them to the north of the Eyder, Ditmarsh must have been within the Sigulonian boundary, Ditmarsh being, at the beginning of the historical period, decidedly Saxon.

§ 74. The *Saxons* fall into two divisions—those of the continent and those of the islands. The conditions under which the former must come are as follows.—

a. They must lie as far south as the Elbe, in order to come next (*ἐφεξῆς*) to the *Chauci Majores*.

b. They must be on the *neck* of the Chersonese ; which *neck* may mean one of two things ; either the line between Hamburg and Lubeck, or the line between Tonning and Rendsburg.

c. They must touch the sea ; inasmuch as the fact of any island being *Saxon* implies that the coast opposite to it was Saxon also.

d. They must lie sufficiently to the west to have the *Sa-labingians* on the east ; and—

e. They must lie sufficiently to the east to have the Sigulones on the west

Nevertheless, as aforesaid, they must touch the sea.

These are not very easy conditions to satisfy—indeed, unless we suppose that Ptolemy's maps were somewhat different from our own, they are impracticable. Neither is the fixation of the islands easy. Sylt, Fohr, and Nordstrand, are the ones most generally quoted. Perhaps, however, the relations of the land and water have altered since the time of Ptolemy; so that the physical history of the North Sea may be the proper complement to the ethnological inquiries for these parts. The matter is unimportant. It is only necessary to remember that there were Saxons on two localities—Saxons on the islands, and Saxons on the sea-coast, Insular Saxons, and Saxons, so to say, of the *Peræa*

§ 75. To what language did this word *Saxon* in Ptolemy belong? Was it native, *i. e.* did the Saxons use it to designate themselves? We cannot answer this question in the affirmative. Nor yet can we say that it was German. In Tacitus, where the names *are* German, it finds no place. This is *pro tanto* against it. Add to this, that none of the names with which it is associated can be shown to be German, *e. g.* Sigulones, Kobandi, &c. On the contrary, one, by hypothesis, is Slavonic

§ 76. The extracts which now follow fall into two divisions. The first makes the Saxons a northern, rather than a southern; the second a southern, rather than a northern people. The first points to the Saxons of Ptolemy, and makes North rather than South Britain, the country on which they descended. The second points to the *Litus Saxonicum*, and makes Kent and the counties of its frontier the likeliest scene for their depredations. The first division is by far the largest, though more in appearance than reality. This is because so many of the quotations are taken from a single writer, Claudian. In several of them the Saxons are connected with the Picts; a fact which we must not forget whenever the ethnography and philology of those mysterious warriors come under notice.

• (1)

Translation.

The Picts, the *Saxons*, the Scots, and the Attacotis harassed the Britons with continual troubles

Original

Picti *Saxones*que et Scotti et Attacotti Britannos ærummis vexare con-
tinuus — *Ammianus Marcellinus*, 264

(2)

Translation

Must I speak of Britain worn with *infuriating* engagements? Must the *Saxon*
wasted by naval battles be offered? Must I speak of the Scot driven to his
bogs?

Original

Attentam pedestribus præliis Britanniam referam? *Saxo* consumptus bellis
navalibus offeretur? Redactum ad paludes sacas Scotum loquar? — *Panegyricus*,
Panegyric on Theodosius, A.D. 391

(3)

Translation

———— he draws together in one spot
The scattered forces of the empire, and counts over the wedges
Arrived to one legion is the custody of the Sarmatian banks
Another is opposed to the savage Gæte, a third legion binds the *Saxon*,
On the Scot——

Original

———— constringit in unum
Sparsas Imperii vires, cuneoque recondit
Dispositos, quæ Sarmaticis custodia ripas,
Quæ sævis objecta Getis, quæ *Saxona* frenat
Vel Scotum legio—— *Claudius*

(4)

Translation

———— his victorious standards
* Did Cæsar carry as far as even the Caledonian Britons.
And even after scattering the Scot, and the Pict, along with the *Saxon*,
He looked for enemies, when Nature forbade him
To look any more for men

Original

———— victoria Cæsar
Signa Caledonios advenit ad usque Britannos,
Fuderit et quanquam Scotum, et cum *Saxone* Pictum,
Hostes quesivit, quum jam Natura vetabat
Quærere plus homines

Sidonius Apollinaris Paneg. Carmin VII (A.D. 455)

(5)

Translation

What avails the eternal rigour of the sky? what the constellations,
And an unknown sea? from the scattered *Saxon*
The Orkneys were wet, with the blood of the Picts Thule warmed,
Her heaps of Scots icy Ierne wept

Original.

Quid rigor æternus cæli, quid sidera prosunt
Ignotumque fretum? maduerunt *Saxone* tuso

Oicades, mcaluit Pictorum sanguine Thule
Scotorum cumulos fleuit glacialis Ierne

Claudian, IV, Consul Honor

(6)

Translation

Then began she (*Rome*) to speak, "What I am with you at my head,
Matters at no great distance tell, so far as Tethys from the subjugation of the
Saxon,

Is milder, or as Britain is secure, the Pict being weakened "

Original

Tum sic oisa loqui (*Roma*) "Quantum te principe possum
Non longinquæ docent, donato quod *Saxone* Tethys
Mitior, et facto secura Britannia Picto "

Claudian

(7)

Translation

"Me also," she (*Britannia*) said, "perishing under the nations near me
Stilicho fortified, when the Scot moved all Ierne
And Tethys foamed under the hostile power
By his care was it effected that I feared not
Scottish darts that I trembled not at the Pict, that, along my whole coast,
I looked not out on the *Saxon* coming on me with the doubtful winds "

Original

"Me quoque vicinis peremitem gentibus inquit" (*Britannia*)
'Munivit Stilicho, totam quum Scotus Iernen
Movit, et infesto spumavit remige Tethys
Illus effectum curas, ne tela timerem
Scotica, ne Pictum timerem, ne litore toto
Prospectarem dubus venturum *Saxona* ventis

Claudian

§ 77. All these place the Saxons in the north The following, and it must be remarked that Sidonius Apollinaris was a Gaul, point to the *Litus Saxonicum*.

(1)

Translation

Moreover the Armonian tract expected
The *Saxon* pirate to whom to furrow the British salt sea on a skin,
And to cleave the glaucous ocean with a sewn skiff was sport

Original.

Quin et Aremonicus piratam *Saxona* tractus
Speiabat, cui pelle salum sulcare Britannum
Ludus, et assuto glaucum mare fundere lembo

Sidonius Apollinaris, Carm vii 369 (A D 455).

(2)

Translation

That part [of Gaul] which was devastated by the incursion of the Saxons
the Vandals and Alans laid waste

Original

*Saxonum incursione devastatam partem Vandalis atque Alanis vastavere —
Prosper Aquitanus ad Ann 410*

CHAPTER VIII

GERMAN ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.—PARTS OF GERMANY, ETC.—CONSIDERATION OF THE CHANGES WHICH MAY HAVE TAKEN PLACE BETWEEN THE CLASSICAL AND THE CARLOVINGIAN PERIOD

§ 78. THE mother-country of the Germans of England, in the time of the Carlovingians and in the eyes of the Franks, was *Saxonia*, or, simply, *Saxony* Friesland, or a part thereof, may occasionally have been included in it.

Of these two areas, *Saxonia* fell into divisions and subdivisions.—

- I. *Cisalbian*, to the south of the Elbe, containing,—
 - Westphalia.
 - Angraria.
 - * Ostphalia.

- II. *Transalbian*, or *Nordalbingian*; beyond the Elbe, containing,—
 1. Ditmarsh.
 2. Stormar.
 3. Holstein.

On the other hand, in the time of the classical writers—

Frisia was the country of the Frisii Majores, Frisii Minores, and, to some extent, of the Chauci

Meanwhile, the occupants of the district which was afterwards Saxonia, were the—

1. Angrivarii in Angraria.
2. Chamavi, Dulgubini, Chasuarii, and (?) Bructeri in Westphalia.
3. Cherusci, Fosi, and Angli, in Eastphalia.
4. Saxones, Sigulones, and Harudes (?) for Nordalbingia.

§ 79. Looking, in the first instance, to the texts of the classical writers only, we cannot but observe that, although there is

a certain amount of agreement between those of Tacitus and Ptolemy, there is a considerable deal of difference also and still more is this the case with the classical and Carlovingian topographers. The Saxony of Ptolemy consists of a small tract of land in the so-called Cimbric Chersonese, whereas the Saxony of Charlemagne is a vast region. Again—and, to a certain extent, this is the consequence of the preceding—several of the tribes of Tacitus are no longer apparent. Thus, there are no Fosi; no Cherusci.

§ 80 These discrepancies must be investigated, since it is very important for us to know whether the *Saxonía* of the tenth century do or do not contain the descendants of the occupants of the same area in the second, third or fourth. If it do, the history of the English language is simplified. Fix the Angli of Tacitus to a certain part of Germany, and find how that part is occupied under the Carlovingian period, and you determine the original country of the ancestors of the present English. The name has changed, but the population is the same. Assume, on the other hand, a migration, a conquest, or an extermination, and the whole question is altered.

§ 81. Now, it is certain there has been a change of some sort. Of what sort? The population may have changed, the name remaining the same, or the name may have changed, the population remaining the same. Were the Cherusci, for instance, bodily transmuted, either by being exterminated on their soil, or by being transported elsewhere? or did they only lose the name Cherusci, taking some other in its stead? Cæsar, Strabo, Velleus, Paterculus, all speak of the Cherusci and all say nothing about the Saxons. On the other hand Claudian is the last writer in whom we find the word Cherusci.

“——— venit accola silvæ
Bructerus Hercynæ, latisque paludibus exit
Cimber, et ingentes Albi liquere Cherusci.”

Consul IV Honor 450

Hence, as long as we have the Cherusci there are no Saxons, and as soon as we meet with the Saxons the Cherusci disappear.

To assume, at once and in the first instance, a series of migrations and displacements is to cut, rather than untie, the Gordian knot. If the Saxons are a new and intrusive population, the change is a real one. But the name may have changed, the population remaining the same. If so, the change is *nominal*.

§ 82. Nominal changes are of three kinds

a. A population that at a certain period designated itself by a certain term, may let that term fall into disuse and substitute another in its place. When this has been done, a name has been actually changed.

b. A population may have more than one designation, *e g* it may take one name when it is considered in respect to its geographical position, another in respect to its political relations, and a third in respect to its habits, &c. Of such names one may preponderate at one time, and another at another

c. Thirdly, its own name may remain unchanged, but the name under which it is spoken of by another population may alter.

Now, I hold that *real* changes are rarer than *nominal* ones; and that not in Germany only but all the world over. It is rare for a population to be absolutely exterminated. It is rare for a migration to empty a whole country. Possibly, however, I may have a tendency to exaggerate the rarity of these phenomena, since there are many competent authorities who think differently. Individually, however, when I ask whether, within a certain period, certain alterations took place, I do not, without special reasons, assume their *reality*.

§ 83. With this preliminary, the first thing that strikes us is that *Saxony* was a name which, in the mouth of a Frank, had a much wider signification than elsewhere. Ptolemy applies it to a mere fragment of land. Tacitus never uses it. With a Frank it meant any occupant of the parts immediately beyond his own frontier who was different from his own countrymen, without being a Roman, a Dane, or a Slave. Sometimes it included, sometimes it excluded, the Frisians. Again, the Frank names are, chiefly, geographical, *e g* *Westfali*, *Ostfali*, *Nordalbingii*, whereas the names in Tacitus are the names of nations. No wonder they differ. With the difference, however, there is agreement. The word *Angrivarii*, or *Angrarii*, is common to the three periods—the Classical, the Carolingian, and the Modern; for (as has been already stated) *Engern* is the present form of it.

As a general rule, the Angli of the Carolingian period, so far as they are German, are merged in the Saxons. They occur, *eo nomine*, occasionally, but only occasionally. The Angli of the Carolingian period are generally the *English* of *England*.

This is as much as will be said at present. Few *real* changes

of any magnitude, between the times of Tacitus and the Carlovingian annalists, can be assumed. The nominal changes, however, are considerable.

CHAPTER IX.

GERMAN ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE — POPULATIONS ALLIED TO, OR IN THE NEIGHBOURHOOD OF, THE ANGLES. — THE SUEVI. — THE LONGOBARDS — THE VARINI — THE REUDIGNI — THE MYRGINGS — HNÆF THE HOCING AND HENGEST.

§ 84. THE extracts of the foregoing chapters have given us certain statements of a true historical character; in other words, they have been taken from writers who had fair means of knowing what they wrote about or alluded to; the conditions both of time and place being sufficiently favourable for the collection of accurate information—or, at any rate, of information which, (as long as there is nothing to impugn it,) may pass for being as authentic as historical information is in general. They have applied to the question under notice in its geographical and ethnological aspects; our business being not so much to ask what certain populations of Northern Germany *did*, but *where they were*, and how they stood in place and blood-relationship to each other. We may, if we indulge in metaphors, call our previous extracts landmarks; landmarks seen, not, perhaps, through the clear atmosphere of the noon-day, but through the dim mists and twilight of the early dawn. The notices of the *present* chapter are only approximations to this. They are, at best, but beacons seen through the darkness of night and throwing but little light on the tracts around them; indeed, it is not improbable that some of them may be little better than *ignes fatui*. At the same time, they agree in this. They give us populations, who, either in the way of ethnological relationship, or geographical contact, had something or other to do with the Angles, and which, *pro tanto*, help to illustrate their history.

Again, the notices of them will, for the most part, be taken from authors who are either unknown, or who dealt with vague

and uncertain reports, or mythic fictions rather than definite statements in the way of geography and history.

§ 85. Concerning the Aviones, Eudoses, Suardones, and Nuthones there is, as has already been stated, but little to be said in any way, whilst that little illustrates anything rather than the affinities of the Angles. The ordinary manipulations of the German School have been applied to them, and a series of unimpeachable letter-changes has shown that they may come out Obii, Phundusi, Pharodini, and Teutones, respectively. All this they may do, and more. It throws, however, no light upon the whereabouts of the Angles. Of Teutones, Phundusi, Pharodini, and Obii, we know as little as we do of Nuthones, Eudoses, Suardones, and Aviones. The Suardones, indeed, may be an exception. We have only to believe that, like the *Big Knives*, and other tribes in North America, the nations of Germany called themselves *Swords, Daggers, Halberts, Axes*, and the like (not *Swordsmen, Daggersmen, &c.*, which would be not unlikely), and *Saxon*, and *Suardon* are the same word, since *Seaxe* (at present meaning a pair of scissors) originally meant a sort of bowie knife, and *Suard* = *sword*. Add to this that *ch-r* means a *sword*, and the Cherusci are Saxons and Suardones also. I give this, not because it is true, but because it comes from high quarters, and has been given to us by those who ought (as they have done before) to give us better things.

§ 86. Omitting, then, the populations with these very equivocal designations, the ones which command our attention are the following.—

1. Suevi;
2. Longobards, or Lombards,
3. Varini, Varni, or Werini,
4. Reudigni;
5. Myrgings—Mauringu—Maurunganiaus

To which add certain notices concerning

1. Hnæf the Hocing and
2. Hengest

§ 87. *The Suevi*. Word for word *Suevi* is the name of the occupants of *Suevia*; and *Suevia* is *Suabia*, or *Schwaben*, in an older form. Now the modern Suabia lies far away from the Lower, far away from even the Middle, Elbe. It lies on the Upper Rhine, a locality as little *Angle* as any in all Germany. Looking, then, at these localities alone, it is clear that no two words are less likely to be equivalent than *Suevus* and *Anglus*,

Σουήβος and Ἀγγεῖλος, *Schwab* and *Angle* Nevertheless, they occur in conjunction in Ptolemy; and they occur, not as the names of two distinct populations, but either as synonyms or as terms indicative of *genus* and *species*, *Succus* being the name for the class, *Anglus* for a peculiar division of it. See § 68.

The same conjunction, though less patent and palpable, is also found in Tacitus.

Translation

Now we must speak about the *Suevi*, of whom the nation is not one (like that of the Chatti or Tencteri), inasmuch as they occupy the greater part of Germany, divided in their several names and nations, although, in general, they are called *Suevi*. It is a mark of the stock to twist the hair, and to draw it up in a knot. By this the *Suevi* are distinguished from the other Germans. By this, amongst the *Suevi* themselves, the free-born are distinguished from the slaves.

The Semnones affirm that they are the oldest and the noblest of the *Suevi*.

They have then habitations in a hundred *pagi*, and the result of the vastness of the mass is that they believe themselves to be the head of the *Suevi*.

In the original

Nunc de Suevis dicendum est, quorum non una (ut Chattrum Tencteriorumve), gens majorem enim Germaniæ partem obtinent, proprius adhuc nationibus nominibusque discreti, quamquam in commune *Suevi* vocentur. Insigne gentis obliquare crinem, nodoque substringere. Sic *Suevi* a ceteris Germanis sic Suevorum ingenium a servis separantur.

Vetustissimos senilissimosque Suevorum Semnones memiorant.

Centum pagis habitantur magnoque corpore efficitur, ut se Suevorum caput credant.

From the Suevian Semnones he passes to the Langobardi, and from the Langobardi to the Angli, &c. "Contia Langobardos paucitas nobilitat," &c. (See § 67). The section that next follows begins—"Et hæc quidem pars Suevorum in secretiora Germaniæ porrigitur."

"Reudigni deinde," &c., and then, "hæc pars Suevorum," &c.

The whole of these notices should be taken together, the context being fully as important as the simple texts.

The Langobards are certainly in the same category with the Semnones—the Semnones, who are "the head of the *Suevi*," the *Suevi* being anything but the occupants of modern Suabia.

The order in which Tacitus takes the populations of this part of his treatise being from South to North, the Langobardi must

be sought on the Middle or Lower, rather than the Upper, Elbe. How far the Angles are likely to have lain to the *east* of them will be considered hereafter. The river *Suebus*, with its name so like that of the population which touched its waters, is remarkable.

Two early authors, then, connect the Suevi with the Angles (placing them both on the Elbe), and, to a certain extent, Strabo agrees with them. Strabo stating that they extended from the Rhine to the Elbe. To this add, that Cæsar brings them as far west as Gaul—Arminius being a king of the Suevi.

The name was a general one. This is against its being native. I do not say that it is conclusively so. Still it is against it. The general names of antiquity are the names which are given to certain populations by their neighbours rather than the names which they give themselves.

§ 88. *Suevi Transbadani*—*Nordosquavi*—*Norsavi*—So much, then, for the Suevi of the *early* writers, the Suevi, who lay far to the east of the present Suabia. So did certain populations mentioned by the *later* ones; for we may now notice two Suabian settlements of the Frank period.

a. Not far from the Harte-go, was a Suevo-go (*pagus Suevorum*), said to have been settled in the time of Alboin, King of the Lombards. *Suevi Transbadani*, or *Suevi* beyond the river *Bode*, was a designation of these colonists—"Suevi vero *Transbadani* illam quam incolunt regionem eo tempore invasere quo Saxones cum Langobardis Italiam adiere."—*Witekind of Corvey*, i. p. 634.

b. Then there were the *Norsavi* or *Nordosquavi*, more correctly *Nordsuavi*, or *Suevi of the North*. These are mentioned in an Epistle of King Theodobert to the Emperor Justinian—"subactis Thuringis. . . *Norsavorum* gentis nobis placata majestas colla subdidit." Again, in the *Annales Mettenses* ad an 748—"Pippinus adunato exercitu per Thuringiam in Saxoniam veniens fines *Saxonum*, quos *Nordosquavos* vocant, cum valida manu intravit. Ibique duces gentis asperæ Sclavorum in occursum ejus venerunt, unanimiter auxilium illi contra *Saxones* ferre parati, pugnatore quasi centum milia *Saxones* vero, qui *Nordosquavi* vocantur, sub suam ditionem subactos contritosque subegit"—*Pertz*, i. 330.

Now Zeuss identifies these *Nordsuavi* with the *Suevi Transbadani*; and, for some time, I followed his view. But a little consideration will show that it by no means follows, that be-

cause the *Suevi Transbailuni* were *Suevi* in the *North* they were, therefore, the *Nordsuavi*. A Lincolnshire colony in the East Riding of Yorkshire would certainly be Englishmen *North of the Humber*, yet they would not be, *North-umbrians*. The difference, however, in the question before us is of but little importance.

§ 89. *The Longobards or Lombards*—I have elsewhere,* and at length, given reasons for believing that, notwithstanding the fact of the specimens of the Lombard form of speech which, in the shape of glosses and proper names, have come down to us, being *High German*, the ancestors of the conquerors of Italy were closely akin to the Angles; perhaps, as closely as the Frisians and the Old Saxons themselves. Perhaps, even, they were actual Angles under another name

Unlike the thousand-and-one migrations by which, in ordinary ethnology, nations are moved from one part of the world to another, like knights on a chess-board (where the intermediate ground is got over, *per saltum*,) that of the Longobardi is a real one. In the time of Tacitus we find them in Northern Germany; in the time of Pope Gregory we find them in Italy. Nor are there wanting traces of their appearance in more than one spot interjacent; *i. e.* in the country of the Ubii (about Cologne); in the country of the Usipetes (about Wiesbaden); in Bavaria and on the Bohemian frontier. I do not say the evidence on these points is conclusive. On the contrary, it is not a little dashed with conjecture. The change of place, however, whatever may be the exact movements by which it was effected, is undeniable.

That the Angles and Lombards were conterminous is suggested, to say the least of it, by the text of Tacitus. That the former lay to the north rather than the south, and the latter to the south rather than the north, is an inference to which all our *data* point, and one to which few investigators, if any, demur.

§ 90 *The Varini, Varni, Werini*—Tacitus is not the only author who associates the Angli and Varini. Procopius does so also. He tells us that Radiger, a prince of the Varni, has an Angle princess betrothed to him. He deserts her for Theodechild, his father's widow. The princess sails to the mouth of the Rhine, conquers and forgives him. Date between A.D. 534 and A.D. 547. Theodechild, the widow, was sister to Theudi-

* Transactions of the Royal Society of Literature

bert, king of the Franks As given in Procopius, the story is as follows.—

“A certain man, named Hermegisclus, ruled over the Varni; and he, being anxious to strengthen his kingdom, had married the sister of Theudibertus king of the Franks, for his former wife had recently died, having given birth to a boy, called Radiger, whom she left to his father. To him his father betrothed a virgin of *Brittan* race, whose brother was at that time king of the nation of the *Angli*, giving her great wealth under the name of dowry. This man, living in a certain district with some of the Varman nobility, saw a bird sitting on a tree and croaking excessively. And then, whether he understood the cry of the bird, or having other information, he pretended that he knew the bird's predictions, he said immediately to those present, that he should die within forty days, for so the boding of the bird portended him, ‘I, therefore,’ said he, ‘providing beforehand how you may live most securely and quietly, have made affinity with the Franks, having taken my wife from among them, and have contracted a Brittan alliance for my son. But now, as I am persuaded I must die very shortly, and as I have neither male nor female issue by this wife, and, moreover, as my son is yet unwedded and unmatched, I will communicate to you my views and if they do not seem inexpedient to you, as soon as I arrive at the term of my existence, prosecuting them successfully, carry them into effect. I think, therefore, that affinity with the Franks, rather than with islanders, would be beneficial to the Varni, and the Franks have only the waters of the Rhine between them, so that, being our nearest neighbours, and extremely powerful, they have the facility of benefiting or of injuring us whenever they please, and they will injure us in every way, unless our affinity with them prevent it. Let the female islander betrothed to my son be abandoned, receiving, as a compensation for this slight, the whole of the wealth with which she has been honoured by us on this occasion, as the established customs of men prescribe. But let Radiger, my son, hereafter marry his stepmother, as our national usage permits.”

Hermegisclus dies, and Radiger prepares to desert his betrothed Brittan. She, to prevent or revenge his desertion,—

“Collecting four hundred vessels, and embarking in them an armament of not less than one hundred thousand warriors, advanced in person against the Varni. She took with her also one of her brothers, to conduct affairs in conjunction with her for the present, not him, indeed, who held the kingdom, but another who filled a private station. Of all the barbarians whom we know, these islanders are the most warlike, and they proceed on foot to their battles. So far from being exercised in horsemanship, they have never had even the chance of knowing what a horse is, since they have never seen in this island even a representation of it, for it appears that such an animal never existed in Britta. Should it happen, therefore, occasionally to any of these people to go on an embassy, or for any other cause, to the Romans or Franks, or elsewhere where horses were used, and should it be necessary for them to proceed on horseback, then have they no device whatever for mounting, but other men lifting them up, place them on the horses, and, when wishing to dismount, they lift them again, and place them on the ground. Neither, indeed, are the Varni horsemen, but men who fight altogether

on foot. Such, then, are these barbarians, neither in this expedition was there a single person unemployed in the vessels, each man taking an oar, nor do these islanders make use of sails, their navigation being effected by rowing only."

To proceed—the maiden herself builds a fort on the mouth of the Rhine, keeps within it, but sends her brother against the enemy. The battle is in favour of the Angli. Radiger flies;—the brother returns;—is upbraided for letting Radiger escape; goes after him again; and brings him back. Radiger is reproached accordingly until he excuses himself, professing that—

"If she were still willing, he should marry her, and would atone for his former misdeeds by his future actions. And when these things pleased the damsel, Radiger was both released from his bonds and honoured with other marks of kindness, whereupon he immediately renounces the sister of Theudibert, and marries the Brittan."

The geography is as strange as any part of this strange story. The inhabitants of this Brittia—

"Declare that the conducting of souls devolves on them in turn. Such of them, therefore, as on the ensuing night are to go on this occupation, in their turn of service, retiring to their dwellings as soon as it grows dark, compose themselves to sleep, awaiting the conductor of the expedition. All at once, at night, they perceive that their doors are shaken, and they hear a certain indistinct voice summoning them to their work. Without delay, arising from their beds, they proceed to the shore, not understanding the necessity which thus constrains them, yet, nevertheless, compelled by its influence. And here they perceive vessels in readiness, wholly void of men, not, however, their own, but certain strange vessels, in which embarking, they lay hold on the oars, and feel their burden made heavier by a multitude of passengers, the boats being sunk to the gunwale and rowlock, and floating scarce a finger above the water. They see not a single person, but having rowed for one hour only, they arrived at Brittia, whereas when they navigate their own vessels, not making use of sails but rowing, they arrive there with difficulty even in a night and day. Having reached the island, and been released from their burden, they depart immediately, the boats quickly becoming light, suddenly emerging from the stream, and sinking in the water no deeper than the keel. Those people see no human being, either while navigating with them, or when released from the ship, but they hear a certain voice, which seems to announce to such as receive them the names of all who have crossed over with them, describing the dignities which they formerly possessed, and calling them over by their hereditary titles. And also if women happen to cross over with them, they call over the names of the husbands with whom they lived. These, then, are the things which men of that district declare to take place."

Such a *Brittia* as this can scarcely be *Britain*; indeed the two are specially distinguished from each other. The distinction,

however, fails to make the geography clear. Meanwhile, a connection of some kind between the Angles and Varni, is clear.

Then comes the heading of a Code of Laws of the Carolinian period, which runs thus—" *Incipit lex Anglorum et Werinorum, hoc est Thuringorum* " It is to be found in Caniciani (*Leges Barbarorum*), and it may be compared with the Anglo-Saxon Laws of England. It is too short to give us much. What it does give, however, is *English*.

It gives us, for instance, the word *Adaling-us* = *Ætheling*.

It gives us the wergild of a freeman as fixed at two hundred shillings.

Thirdly, it gives us the English compensation for the different kinds of bodily injuries.

But who were the *Werini*? Doubtless descendants of the *Varni* of Procopius, the *Varini* of Tacitus, and the *Werns* of the Traveller's Song, over whom Billing ruled—no Germans of Hanover, but Slavonians of Mecklenburg.

And how come they to be called Thuringian (*hoc est Thuringorum*)? I submit that the translation of the heading is not—"Here beginneth the Law of the Angles and Werini, that is, the Thuringians," but—"Here beginneth the Law of the Angles and Werini, that is, of the Angles and Werini of Thuringia."

This difference is, by no means, unimportant, inasmuch as, whilst the one makes them Thuringians, which neither an Angle nor a Werinian could well have been, the other only makes them settlers in Thuringia, which they most probably were.

§ 91. *The Reudigni*—The last two syllables are inflectional, the root being *R-d*. This occurs as the element of a compound in more Icelandic and Anglo-Saxon passages than one. Whoever the Goths of Scandinavia may have been, they fell into more than one class. There were, for instance, the simple *Goths* of *Goth-land*, the *island* Goths of *Ey-gota-land*, and, thirdly, the Goths of *Reidh-gotu-land*, an old name for *Jutland*, as well as the name of a country *east of Poland*. Zeuss* well suggests that these conflicting facts may be reconciled by considering the prefix *Reidh*, to denote the Goths of the *Continent* in opposition to the word *Ey*, denoting the Goths of the *Islands*.

In the Traveller's Song we find a *Hreth-king*—

"He with Ealhlud,
Faithful peace-weaver,

* In v *Jute*

For the first time,
Of the *Hreth*-king
Sought the home,
East of Ongle,
Of Eoemannic,
The fierce faith-breaker "

We also meet with the name in the simple form *Hreth* —

"Eadwine I sought and Elsa,
"Ægelmund and Hungar,
"And the proud host
"Of the *With*-Myrgings, (")
"Wulfhere I sought and Wyrnhere,
"Full oft war ceased not there,
"When the *Hreth*'s army,
"With hard swords,
"About *Vistula*'s wood
"Had to defend
"Their ancient native seat
"Against the folk of *Ætla* "

Such light as we get from these passages induces us to place the *Reudigni* on the eastern side of the Elbe. If so, they lay beyond the limits of the Carlovingian *Saxonia*; the relation between the *Hreths* and *Ongle* being that between the *Reudigni* and *Angli*.

§ 92. *The Myrgings, &c.*—In the Anglo-Saxon poem, already quoted, the poem known as The Traveller's Song, the notices of a nation of Myrgings are numerous—Heaca being their king. In the first place the geographer himself has had something to do with them.

ANGLO-SAXON

Widsið maðolade,
Wordhord on-leác,
Se ðe mæst
Mæra ofer eorðan,
Folca geond ferde
Oft he flette gepáh,
Mynelicne máppum.
Hine from *Myrgungum*
Æpele on-wócon
He mid Ealh-hilde,
Fæle freoþuwebban,
Foðman siþe,
Hreðcynunges
Hám gesóhte,
Eástan of Ongle;
Eormanrices
Wiapes wæ'ilogan

ENGLISH.

Widsith spake,
His word-hoard unlock'd,
Who a vast many [had met with]
Wonders on earth,
Travell'd through many nations,
Oft he had in hall received
A memorable gift
Him from among the *Myrgings*,
Nobles gave birth to
He with Ealhild,
Faithful peace-weaver,
For the first time,
Of the *Hreth*-king,
Sought the home
East of Ongle,
Of Eoemannic,
The fierce faith-breaker.

Ongon þá woin sprecan
 " Fela ic monna gefiægn,
 " Mægþum wealdan "

Began then much to speak .
 " Of many men I've heard,
 " Ruling o'er tribes," &c

Again —

" Þa ic to hám bi-cwom,
 " Leofum to leáne,
 " Þæs þe he me lond forgeaf,
 " Mines fæder éþel,
 " Fieá *Myrgunga* ,
 " And me þá Ealh-huld
 " O'þeine for-geaf,
 " Dýhtewen duguþe,
 " Dohtor Eadwines "

" When to my home I came,
 " In iequtal to my friend,
 " For that he me had given land,
 " My father's home,
 " The *Myrgung's* Lord ,
 " And to me then Ealhild
 " Another gave,
 " The noble queen of chieftains,
 " Eadwine's daughter "

Again :—

" Mid Moidum ic wæs, and mid
 Peisum,
 " And mid *Myrgungum*,
 " And Moflungum,
 " And ongend *Myrgungum*,
 " And mid Amoflungum "

" With the Medes I was and with the
 Persians,
 " And with the *Myrgungs*,
 " And the Moflungs,
 " And again with the *Myrgungs*,
 " And with the Amoflungs "

More important is an extract which brings the Angle Offa in contact with them, and with the *Heaðo-bards*.

Offa weóld Ongle,
 Alewih Denum ,
 Se wæs þáa manna
 Mod gast eaha
 Nó hwæþe he ofe Offan
 Eoilscepe fiemede ,
 Ac Offa ge-slóg,
 Ærest monna,
 Cnihtwesende,
 Cynerica mæ'st
 Næ'mig efen eald him
 Eoilscepe máian,
 On orette,
 A'ne sweorde ,
 Meice gemæ'ide,
 W'ð *Myrgungum*, (?)
 Bi Fífeldore,
 Heóldon forð sibþan
 Engle and Swæ'te
 Swá hit Offa geslóg
 Hrópwulf and Hróðgar
 Heóldon lengest,
 Sibbe æt somne,

Offa ruled Ongle,
 Alewih the Danes,
 Who of those men was
 Haughtiest of all
 Yet not o'er Offa he
 Supremacy effected,
 For Offa won
 Earliest of men,
 Being a youth,
 Of kingdoms greatest
 No one of like age with him
 Dominion greater
 Had in contest gam'd
 With his single sword ;
 His marches he enlarged
 Towards the *Myrgungs*, (?)
 By Fífel-dor
 Continued thenceforth,
 Engles and Swæfs,
 As Offa it had won
 Hiothulf and Hiothgar
 Held very long
 Peace together,

Suhtoi-fædian	The paternal cousins,
Sippan hy' foi-wia'lon	After they had expell'd
Wicynga cunn,	The race of Wikings,
And Ingeldes	And Ingeld's
Oid foi-bigdan,	Sword had bow'd,
Foiheowan æt Heomote,	Slaughter'd at Heomot
Heapbeaðna þym	The host of Heathobeards

Lastly, we get (probably through a blunder) the name *With-Myrgings*.

"Eádwine sólte ic, and Elsan,	"Eadwine I sought and Elsa,
"Ægelmund, and Hungar,	"Ægelmund and Hungar,
"And þa wloncan gedryht,	"And the proud host
"Witð <i>Myrginga</i> " (°)	"Of the <i>With-Myrgings</i> ." (°)

In the later writers there is a *Mauringian* district in the parts north of the Elbe, *i. e.* in the parts that the Franks called Nordalbingia. On the other hand, the *Marovingi* (Μαρουίγγοι) of Ptolemy lay to south of the Mayn.

Translation

Again, east of the Abnobæan Mountains (*i. e.* the Black Forest) dwell, above, the Suevi, the Kasuari, then the Nertereanes, then the Danduti, under whom the Tuoni and *Marovingi*

In the original

Πάλιν ἀπ' ἀνατολῶν μὲν τῶν Ἀβνοβαίων ὄρων οἰκοῦσιν ὑπὲρ τοὺς Σουήβους Κασουάροι, εἶτα Νερτερéανες εἶτα Δανδοῦτοι, ὑφ' οὓς Τούρωνοι καὶ Μαρουίγγοι.

Thirdly, in Warnefrid's account of the migration of the Lombards, there is a country named *Mauringu*, not far from the Assipitti, whilst

The geographer of Ravenna gives us a *Maurungania* beyond the Elbe

The inference from all this is, that there were two districts to which a name like *Mauring* or *Merving* applied; a northern one and a southern one. That the name of the former still exists in the word *Mohringen* I am strongly inclined to believe. If so, we have an instrument of criticism. A work to which, in a forthcoming chapter, numerous references will be made, is a grammar of the North-Frisian language in the *Moring* dialect, a dialect which falls into an eastern and a western sub-division, being spoken on the western coast of Sleswick, in the parishes of Niebull, Deezebrul, Risum, and Lindholm. Now this locality suits the Myrgings, in the direction of whom Offa "enlarged his marches," these being the ones more specially related to the Angles. Beyond this, however, there is much confusion, which the present writer hopes, elsewhere, to unravel.

§ 93. *Hnæf, the Hocing, and Hengest*—The name of Hnæf, the Hocing, should be considered. That, word for word, *Hocing* is *Chauci*, has already been stated. It is now stated that, word for word, *Hnæf* is *Hanover*; the expression *Hnæf the eponymus of Hanover*, being one which is by no means uncommon in works upon German archæology. *Valeat quantum*. I lay little stress on it myself. At the same time, it is an approach to something like evidence in favour of Hanover having, at one time, stood upon ground, either originally belonging to, or appropriated by, the Chauci.

In the poem of Beowulf, Hengest is specially connected with the Hocings. Amongst its heroes are—

1. Fin, the son of Folcwalda (Fin Folcwalding), a Frisian
2. Hildeberg, his Queen, a Hocing (the Hocings are the Chauci).
3. Healfdene, the king of the Danes.
4. Hnæf (the *eponymus* of Hanover) a Hocing, his vassal
5. Hengest, a Jute, his (Healfdene's) vassal also

These two last inhabit Fin's territory. Hnæf is slain; Fin's followers also. The bodies are burned. Hengest remains, and meditates vengeance, which he effects by killing Fin and carrying off his queen.

1. "Hroðgar's poet after the mead-bench must excite joy in the hall, concerning Finn's descendants, when the expedition came upon them, Healfdene's hero, Hnæf the Scylding, was doomed to fall in Friesland. Hildeburg had at least no cause to praise the fidelity of the Jutes, guiltlessly was she deprived at the wai-game of her beloved sons and brothers, one after another they fell wounded with javelins, that was a mournful lady. Not in vain did Hrode's daughter mourn their death after morning came, when she under the heaven might behold the slaughter of her son, where he before possessed the most of earthly joys. Wai took away all Finn's thanes, except only a few so that he might not on the place of meeting gain anything by fighting against Hengest, nor defend in wai his wretched remnant against the king's thane, but they offered him conditions, that they would give up to him entirely a second palace, a hall, and throne, so that they should halve the power with the sons of the Jutes, and at the gifts of treasure every day Folcwalda's son should honour the Danes, the troops of Hengest should serve them with rings, with hoarded treasures of solid gold, even as much as he would furnish the race of Frisians in the beer-hall. There they confirmed on both sides a fast treaty of peace."

Again,—

"Thence the warriors set out to visit their dwellings, deprived of friends, to see Friesland, their homes and lofty city, Hengest yet, during the deadly-coloured winter, dwelt with Finn, boldly, without casting of lots he cultivated the land, although he might drive upon the sea the ship with the

ringed prow, the deep boiled with storms, wan against the wind, winter locked the wave with a chain of ice, until the second year came to the dwellings, so doth yet, that which eternally, happily provideth weather gloriously bright. When the winter was departed, and the bosom of the earth was fair, the wanderer set out to explore, the stranger from his dwellings. He thought the more of vengeance than of his departing over the sea, if he might bring to pass a hostile meeting, since he inwardly remembered the sons of the Jutes. Thus he avoided not death when Hunlaf's descendant plunged into his bosom the flame of war, the best of swords, therefore were among the Jutes, known by the edge of the sword, what warriors bold of spirit Finn afterwards tell in with, savage sword slaughter at his own dwelling, since Guðlaf and Oslaf after the sea-journey mourned the sorrow, the grim onset, they avenged a part of their loss, nor might the cunning of mood refrain in his bosom, when his hall was surrounded with the men of his foes. Finn also was slain. The king amidst his band, and the queen was taken; the warriors of the Seyldings bore to their ships all the household wealth of the mighty king which they could find in Finn's dwelling, the jewels and carved gems, they over the sea carried the lordly lady to the Danes—led her to their people. The lay was sung, the song of the glee-man, the joke rose again, the noise from the benches grew loud, cupbearers gave the wine from wondrous vessels."

The translation is Mr. Kemble's. It may also be found in a version of Mr. Thorpe's as an appendix to the first volume of Lappenberg.

CHAPTER X.

GERMAN ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.—PARTS OF GERMANY FROM WHICH IT WAS INTRODUCED.—INTERNAL EVIDENCE.—LANGUAGE.—PRELIMINARY REMARKS.—THE OLD SAXON.

§ 94. THE written language nearest akin to the written English of the present century is the written English of the last—and so on.

The unwritten forms of speech nearest akin to the written English are the provincial dialects of the counties of Huntingdon, Rutland, the north-eastern part of Northamptonshire, and the southern part of Lincolnshire.

This means that the standard of our speech is in its newest form to be found in the most recent written compositions of the *literati* of England; and that the dialects (if so they can be called) of the districts just named are the purest of our provincial modes of speaking.

But the two statements carry with them something beyond this. They suggest the fact that when languages become the vehicles of literature and the exponents of the thoughts of educated men, they must be viewed in two ways.

a. They must be viewed in respect to the written and literary language of the country to which they belong in its earlier forms; and—

b They must be viewed in respect to the provincial dialects spoken around and cotemporary with them.

Both these are points of minute philology, and neither of them finds its full exposition in the present chapter. They are merely indicated. Special notice will be taken of the different stages of our tongue, and special notice will be taken of our provincial dialects hereafter. The point immediately before us is, the question of the general relations of the English to the other allied languages of the Continent of Europe, the area on which it originated. In which case all the different dialects and all the differences of the same dialect are merged under the common denomination of English, and the English language means English and Anglo-Saxon—English and Lowland Scotch—English and the English provincial and the literary dialects; these being dealt with generally and collectively as elements and ingredients of a single tongue.

§ 95. When languages first separate from a common stock they are most like each other. Hence, in comparing the speech of England with the speech of Germany, we take the languages of the two countries in the first known period of their growth. English and the Dutch of Holland are alike in their present forms; but English and Dutch in their oldest known respective forms are liker still.

This rule is general and convenient, but it is not universal. Although when languages first separate from a common stock they are most like each other, it does not always follow that the longer they are separated the more unlike they become. Languages which differ in an older form may so far change according to some common principle as to become identical in a newer one.

To take a single instance. Let two languages have different signs of the infinitive mood. Let each lose this sign. What follows? Even this, that the two originally different forms become similar.

Thus *bærn-an* is Anglo-Saxon, *bærn-a* Friesian. Here is

difference. Eject the last syllable. The remainder is *barn*. Here is likeness.

Hence it may be seen that when two languages have in their older stages been differentiated from each other by means of characters that become obsolete as the language grows modern, they may grow liker and liker as time proceeds.

§ 96. Let us now look to the Continent of Germany and ask about the languages there spoken. Which are nearest akin to our own?

The mother-tongue of the present English is the Anglo-Saxon, and no written specimen of this Anglo-Saxon can be shown to have originated otherwise than as the language of England, and on English ground. The manuscripts by which they have been transmitted to us were written in English monasteries; and the dialects which they embody are the dialects of certain English counties. We cannot often give the exact locality, nor yet determine the particular form of speech represented, but we can always safely say that England was the country in which the language was spoken and the words written. I am not aware of any exception to these statements. If such exist, they are unimportant.

Yet the English language originated in Germany, and in Germany the so-called Anglo-Saxon must have been spoken during the whole period that the English invasion was going on, as well as for some time both before it began and after it had left off. It was certainly *spoken*, and may have been *written*. It may have been written, or if not written, embodied in poetry, and so handed down orally. Have any such specimens come down to us? This was answered in the negative when it was stated that all the extant specimens of the mother-tongue of the present English are of English origin. Consequently they are all later than the Anglo-Saxon invasions.

This, however, applies only to the *form* of the Anglo-Saxon compositions. I do not say that the *matter* of some of them may not be continental. For instance, there is a famous poem called Beowulf, in which no mention is made of England at all, and of which the heroes are Danes, Frisians, Geats, and Angles—Angles as they were in the original Angle-land of Germany, not Angles after the fashion of Ecbert, Alfred, and the English kings. Nevertheless, it is only the *matter* of Beowulf that is held to be continental. Its *language* is that of the Anglo-Saxons of England, and England was the country in which it took the Anglo-Saxon form. There is

no such thing as a specimen of language which is at one and the same time Anglo-Saxon in form and continental in origin.

§ 97. There is, however, something like it. If we eject from the *Anglo-Saxon* the prefix *Angle*, we are enabled to consider the word *Saxon* as a sort of generic term for a group of closely-allied dialects, of which the mother-tongue of the present English was one. Others there might have been; others there probably were, others there actually were. Although there are no vestiges of the *Anglo-Saxon* of the Continent, there still is a Saxon form of speech of continental origin. Instead of *Anglo-* write *Old-*, and you have the current and ordinary name by which the language under notice is designated by the scholars of the nineteenth century, viz *Old-Saxon*.

How far either of the elements of this compound is exceptionable or unexceptionable will be considered hereafter. The present chapter deals with the *real* rather than the *nominal* question as to the nature of a particular form of speech spoken in a particular part of Germany during, and for some time subsequent to, the reign of Charlemagne. This, whatever else it may be, is the Saxon of the Continent as contrasted with the Saxon of the British Isles. It is the Saxon of the Continent, not because it was never spoken in England, for there is no proof of that, but because it is only known to us by specimens which took the form in which they have come down to us in some part of continental Germany. And, similarly, the Anglo-Saxon is the Saxon of England, not because it was never spoken in continental Germany, for it *was* so spoken, but because it is known to us by specimens which took the form in which they have come down to us in some part of insular England.

§ 98. Some of the specimens of the so-called Old Saxon, more properly called the Saxon of the Continent, Continental Saxon, or old Westphalian, are either actually known, or legitimately believed to have originated within the limits of *Saxonia*—the *Saxonia* of the Franks. Others, on the other hand, are held to have done so simply because they exhibit certain characteristics.

§ 99. At the head of the first class stands a remarkable document which is often quoted under the title *Frekkenhorstius*, in which case we must understand some word like *Liber*, or *Rotulus*, and translate it as the *Frekkenhorst Book*, the *Frekkenhorst Roll*, or the *Frekkenhorst Muniments*. Call it, however,

what we may, the locality is that of the present village of *Frekkenhorst*, on the Upper Ems, a little to the south-east of Munster. Though well within the borders of Westphalia it is not far from those of Angaria, being at no great distance from Engern. There is a *Sassenberg* and other villages, the names whereof point to the Saxons, in its neighbourhood—villages where the language or some other Saxon characteristic may, possibly, have sustained itself at the time when all around was Frank

The date is uncertain. According to Massman, the latter part of the MS is between twenty and thirty years later than the former. Now, in this latter part, we have the name *Henricus Imperator*. There were three other Henries, but this is the one to which the title *Emperor* best applies. If so it gives us the end of the ninth century for the earliest portion of the muniment—only, however, as an approximation.

The vocabulary, from the nature of the record, is of the scantiest. Though the document is a long one, it contains but few glosses; the same words being repeated over and over again. It gives us, however, in addition to numerous local and personal proper names, some interesting words, such as *van*=*from*, and *sin*=*his* (*suus* as opposed to *ejus*), both of which are Dutch and German rather than Anglo-Saxon: both, too, being wholly wanting in the present English, though both occur in the German of Germany as well as in the Dutch of Holland. The numerals, too, are found in full, *e. g.* —

- 1 enon (emen), ena (eine), en (ems)
- 2 thue, tho, tue, tuena, thuena, tua
- 3 thriu, thre, thrio, thru
- 4 uer, uer, fier, uai
- 5 uif, fif
- 6 ses, sesse sehs
- 7 siuon, siuen
- 8 ahte, aht (ahto), ahte
- 9 ngon, ngen, ngen
- 10 them, tem, ten, tan
- 11 eleuen, eleuan, elleuan.
- 12 tuuhf, tuhf, tuuluua, tuehf.
- 13 thriutem, thriutem
- 14 ueritem
- 15 fifitem
- 16 sestem
- 17 siuontem, siuontem
- 18 ahtetem, ahtethem, ahtotein, ahtetian

- 19 nigentem, nicheniem
 20 tuentigh, tuentihe, tuentich, tuentig tuenteg
 21 en an twintich
 22 tue ende tuentich
 27 siuon ende tuentich
 30 thutic, thutig, thutich, thutihe
 31 en ende XXX
 33 thuo ende thutich
 34 fieri ande (ende) thutich
 40 fietlic, weith, fietich, uattheg
 50 (half hunderod) uftech
 53 III and fitech
 60 1331, sestich
 80 ahtodoch, ahtedeg
 100 hunderod
 150 othai half hunderod

The translation is literal, *i e* the original is translated into English *word for word*, by which the extent to which the vocabularies of the two forms of speech agree is exhibited. Thus *gerst* is rendered by *grist* rather than *barley*. Neither are the names of the measures translated. To have called a *nuttun* a *peck*, a *gallon*, or by the name of some other approximate measure, would have concealed a fact in language without giving us its equivalent in metrology. The names, too, of the places stand as the original gives them their equivalents, some of which are more certain than others, being given at the end of the extract.

(1)

Thit sint thue sculde uan thiemo Uiano Uehusa · uan themo Houe seluono, tuulif geistena malt, ende X malt huetes, ende IIII muddi ende IIII. malt 1oggon, ende ahte muddi ende thiui muddi banano, ende uen . . . kogu, ende thue specsun . . . cosun, IIII embar sineras ende alle thue uerscange the huto hared other half hunderod honeio, thue mudde eiero, thiui muddi penikas, enon salmon, ende theio Abdiscon tuulif sculd lakan, ende thue embar haugas, ende en sun sestein penniggo uueht, ende en scap, ende ses muddi huetes, ende tem scok gauano

Ande to themo Asteronhus. uf geistena malt gmelta, in Natiuitate Dni et in Resurrectione Dni to then copon, ende ses muddi, ende tuentigh muddi gerston, ende uerth muddi haueron, ende ses muddi eito, ende uer malt 1okkon ende en muddi, ende en muddi huetes, ende tue specsun, ende tue sun no gehuethai ahte penniggo weht

Uan Lacseton, uf malt gerstina gmelta, ende uer malt 1okkon ende en muddi, ende tue specsun, ende tue sun no gehuethai ahte penniggo weht

Uan Emesahannon, viertem muddi gerston gmelta, ende en specsun, ende tue sun no gehuethai ahte penniggo weht

Uan Suthai (z) Ezzehon, Richaht tue malt 1okkon, tue geistina malt gama-lana, ende Junggi uuan themo seluon thoipa thirthig muddi 1okkon, ende ahte them muddi geistinas maltas

Uan Fichtthaipa, Aceln them muddi 1okkon, ende them muddi gerstinas maltas

Uan Radisthaipa, Azilm en malt 1okkon

Uan Uueistai Lacseton, Lanzo tuentthug muddi 1okkon, ende en geistin malt gimelt

Uan theio Mussa, Hezil tuentthug muddi 1okkon, ende en geistin malt ga malan, ende, uan themo seluon thaipa, Boio tuentthug muddi 1okkon, ende tuentthug muddi geistinas maltas, ende Tiezo uan theio musna en malt 1okkon

Uan Graftthaipa, Wilhiko tuuhf muddi 1okkon, ende en geistin malt Reinzo, uan themo seluon thaipa, en malt 1okkon, ende Hemoko, uan themo seluon thaipa, tue malt 1okkon, ende en malt geistin gumalan

Uan Anon, Ghehiko, tue malt rokkon

Uan Smrthehuson, Eizo en malt 1okkon An themo seluon thaipa, Alzo tuentthug muddi 1okkon

Uan Husti, Emma tuentthug muddi 1okkon

Uan Ueltseton, Tieziko tue malt rokkon Beinhaid, an themo seluon thaipa, tuentthug muddi rokkon

Uan Holonseton, Azeln en malt 1okkon. Wikmund, an themo seluon thaipa, ende Dageiad ende Azeko alligiliko imo.

Uan Bochohta, Liediko tue malt 1okkon

Uan Oionbeki, Kanko h Raziko, an themo seluon thaipa, also Catmar, uan themo seluon thaipa, ahte tem muddi 1ockon Witzo thutthie muddi rockon uan themo seluon thaipa

Uan Grupilngi, Witzo en malt 1ockon Ratbraht, uan themo seluon thaipa, en malt 1ockon, ande en embar hanigas

Uan Sciphuust, Manniko sinen muddi 1ockon, ende en embar hanigas Jazo, uan themo seluon thaipa, tuentthug muddi 1ockon, ende tue emmar hanigas.

Uan Emisahoinon; Memi tuentthug muddi 1ockon

Uan Sah Emisahoinon, Memzo thutthie muddi 1ockon, ende en geistin malt gumalan Habo, uan themo seluon thaipa, tuentthug muddi rockon

Uan Dagmathon, Boio en malt 1ockon Lieuwim, an themo seluon thaipa, also ulo

Uan Tharphuinin, Kanko tuentthug muddi 1ockon

Uan Haswinkila, Maldiko fitem muddi 1ockon. Kanko, an themo seluon thaipa, ngen muddi 1ockon, ende, an themo seluon thaipa, Eihiko ahte muddi 1ockon Huniko, an themo seluon thaipa, en malt 1ockon, ende tue embar hanigas

Uan Heuthe, Roziko en . malt 1ockon Hizil, an themo seluon thaipa, fitem muddi 1ockon Adbraht, an themo seluon thaipa, thrutein muddi rockon Abbiko, an themo seluon thaipa, ahte tem muddi 1ockon

Uan Mottonhem, Sizo en malt rockon

Uan Duttinghuson, Sizzo tue malt 1ockon.

Uan Kukonhem, Vbik tue malt 1ockon

Uan Belon, Witzo sestein muddi 1ockon Rikheii, an themo seluon thaipa, tue malt rockon

Uan Uoinon, Sello tue malt 1ockon. Mannikin, an themo seluon thaipa, tuentthug muddi rockon.

Uan Sahtinhem, Hameko tue malt 1ockon An themo seluon thaipa, Hameko tue III sol malt 1ockon, ende en embar hanigas. An themo seluon thaipa, Hoyko en malt rockon

Uan Unaianthaipa, Gunzo taentling muddi rockon

Uan Beighem, Eilswth ahte tem muddi rockon ende elfetta half muddi geistinas maltes An themo seluon thaipa, Sizo ahte tem muddi rockon ende fite half muddi geistinas maltes

(2)

Thut sint the sculdi the an thena Hof geldad

Uan Walegaidon, Haddo en malt geiston, ende tuentling muddi hauoron Reingier uan Unalegaidon, ses muddi geiston, ende tue muddi huetes Hitzel, uan theio Musna, fif muddi geiston Thiezo, uan theio Musla, ses muddi geiston

Uan Anon, Jehko, en malt geiston

Uan Ueltzeton, Thieziko en malt geiston

Uan Slade, Abbiko sesten muddi rockon

Uan Saktinhem, Hoyko en malt rockon

Uan Reher, Lreunko en malt rockon

Uan Giflahust, Lanzo en malt rockon

Uan Mottonhem, Sizo en malt rockon

Uan Belon, Atzeko tuentlie muddi rockon ende en malt geiston

Uan Membrahtingthaipa, hullo en geiston malt ende ses muddi huetes

Uan Iezi, Raziko tue muddi huetes ende thru muddi rock Liappo, uan themo Asterualde, tue muddi huetes, sin nabu tem muddi cones, ende tue muddi huetes

Uan Uoinon, Sello en malt geiston

(3)

Thut sint the sculdi uan themo Houa seluamo, uan Lecman, ses muddi geistinas maltes uppen spikei, ende en ko, ende en kosun, ende tue specsun, ende tue sun no ia huethai ahte penningo uueith, ende thio anger fier, ande thutich keso, ende thru half embai smeras, en gi scethan ende tue hute, ende fier ende thutich honero, ende tue muddi enio Ende theio Abdisscon sie tuene uan Lecmeri ende uan Uaethaipa en sun sesten penningo uueith, ende en scap, ende tue embai hanigas, ende en malt rockon Ende Attiko uan uueist fif sculd lakan theio Abdisscon

Uan Smithchuson, Azeko tuentich muddi rockon Manniko, uan themo seluon thaipa, fiftem muddi rockon, ende tue muddi melas

(4)

Thut sint the offigeso fan themo Houa to Be(1)uanon (2) thuingas ende bauon thes Helegon Auandas te nycmo gera tue gmalena, malt geistina ende en god sun, ende fier muddi rukknas biadas, ende elt te Sancte Petionellun Missa also ulu Ende ses muddi huetes te theio dac huilekon pieuenda

Thut sint the offigeso uan then Foreuueikon Uan Gesthuula, ahte geistina malt gmalena ende tue malt huetes, ende ngon sun

Ende uan Telger, fier gerstina malt gmalena, ende en malt huetes, ende fier goda sun

Ende uan Elslare, tue geistina malt gmalena, ende ses muddi huetes, ende ena ko, ende tue embai hanigas Thut scal he guan te theio Missa Sci Baitholomei

Ende uan Dunningtharpa, tue geistina malt gmalena, ende en malt huetes, ende tue sun no ia huethai sesten penningo uueith

Uan Bernuelda, fif geistina malt gmalena, ende fiftem muddi huetes, ende fif goda sun

Ende uan Beiga thiū muddi huetes, ende en geistun malt gimalen, ende en god sun

Ende uan Radistharpā tue geistina malt gimalena, ende fiei muddi huetes, ende fiei muddi 1ockon gibak, ende en god sun

Ende uan Gestlan tue geistina malt gimalena ende fier muddi huetes, ende en sun Themo timmeron fiei muddi geiston

That is fan themo ambehta uan themmo Ueliusa fiffe half punt 1ockon, ende thurtem muddi 1ockon Van themmo ambehta Anngerale, smotho half malt 1ockon Van themo ambehta te Balohoinon tue malt 1ockon Van themo ambehta Iukmaie, tue punt 1ockon, ende nigentem muddi 1ockon Van themo ambehta te Uaetharpa, en punt 1ockon Thes sindon allas ahte punt ende fietem muddi geistmas maltes

Te Anngerale, Waliko sestein muddi geistmas maltes

Te Pikonhurst, Eliko tue muddi 1ockon, ende fiei muddi geiston

Te Stenbikie, Edo tue muddi huetes

Te Haslei, Hiddikan tue muddi huetes

In Natutate Dni X in orde, te themo hereston altare et XVI in auene Adduudendu singulis altaribus Ende thaito VIII iuslos, ande ses X stukkie flesseas de coquina Et Archipiesbitero en malt geiston, et in Quadagesima VI in orde ende tue malt geiston themo hudere Et Decano semel in anno VIII in auene

In Uigla Natutate Dni en malt to then huuppenon, ande to themo in gange theio rungerono en half malt

Ande to Sci Iohannis Missa fiei in ande to octab Dni et in Epiphan Dni similiter Et in Annuersario See Thedhild—to then neppenon, ande to then almoson, ande to themo inganga theio rungerono tue malt Et in Cena Dni, et Inuentione Sancte Crucis, et in Festiutate Omnium Sco similiter Ande te theio beth Missa fiei in maltes te themo inganga theio rungerono Ande alle thie Sunnondage an theio uaston, ande te See Marion missa an theio uaston, similiter Ande te Paschon en half malt then rungero inte gande Ande te then neppimon en fulmalt Ande te theio cruce uuikon en malt then rungeron inte gande Ande te Pinkleston en half malt in te gade then rungeron, ande en malt to then neppimon

In Festu Sci Bonifaci, en half malt then rungeron inte gande Ande to theio Missa Sci Uita fiei in then rungeron inte gande Ande te then midden sumeia VI in inte gande then rungeron Ande te theio missa sci Petri similiter Ande te then misson bethen See Marie similiter Cosme et Damiani, fier in te themo in ganga Antonn et Conu similiter In Festu Sci Michah VI in te themo inganga In Adventu Dni fiei in te themo inganga In Festu See Andree similiter Et in Festu Sci Maxim similiter Themo koka fiei in geiston Themo bakkeia similiter Then maleren VI in au te than queanon, endi fiei in geiston fan themo neccssario Themo maltere VI in au te than queanon, uan then sue(g)geron, en in geiston Ekgon Then kietelaren XVIII in geiston Te Sci Laurenti missa endi te Sci Mathei Missa VI in geiston then thienest mannon Themo uuidera en in geiston, te nectamon Te thangi menon almoson, te theio Missa See Marie VI in ende eht te See Marion Missa similiter Thesas alles sundon en endi XXX malto Fierthe half malt rockon IIII in aue the 1etton piauendi, and V malt, and V in to themo meltetha, si sestein penningo uuert

That hared to theio uuunward Van Liuzikon themo ammalht manne tuuif kicos, ande tuena penninga ende tue muddi iukimas mclas, ende fiei penning uuertl palas

Uan Anngeialo ende uan Baleharnon the ammath man no ia uethar also uilo

Uan Iukmare Hizel ende Jezo uan Faethaipa no ia uethar enon penning, ende en muddi iukinas melas, ende ses kiesos

Ende Jezo uan Farethaipa gued eno suon gi bunt kopan bandi ende alleio gi bundo huilk hebba suon bandi

That is thru asna thu to themo batha hoed

De Balohornon, van Elmhust, enon scilling

De Anngerale van Hetnon, enon scilling Van themo ammathta te Iukmare

Uan Lacbergon, enon haluon scilling, ende uan themo ammathta te Uaretharpa

Uan Uarete enon haluon scilling

De Thurion Bokholta uan themo ammathta to then Uehus II scillinga Van Ikcon, ammathte seal cuman XXVIII biac ord et XXVIII et VI in gimeltas maltes ord

(1)

These are the dues from the Viehhof from the Grange itself, twelve maltings of bailey, and ten maltings of wheat, and mittuns and maltings of iye, and eight mittuns and three mittuns of beans, and four cows, and two porkers . . . sow four embers of butter, and all the young ones which hereto belong, or half a hundred hens, two mittuns of eggs, and three mittuns of panick grass, one salmon. And to the abbess, twelve dues of locks, and two embers of honey, and one swine, sixteen-pence worth, and one sheep, and six mittuns of wheat, and ten

And to the Asteionhus five maltings of bailey mealed on the Nativity of our Lord, and on the Resurrection of our Lord, to the . . . and six mittuns and twenty mittuns of gist, and forty mittuns of oats, and six mittuns of peas, and four maltings of iye, and one mittun of wheat, and two bacon swine, and two swine, each worth eight pennies

From Lacseton, five maltings of gist mealed, and four maltings of rye, and one mittun and two bacon swine, and two swine, each of them worth eight pennies

From Ennesaharnon, fourteen mittuns of gist mealed, and one bacon swine, and two swines, each of them worth eight pennies

From Suthar Ezzehon, Rachiaht two maltings of iye, two maltings of gist mealed, and Junggi from the same thoip, thirty mittuns of iye, and eighteen mittuns of gist malt

From Fiechttharp, Aceln ten mittuns of iye, and ten mittuns of gist malt

From Radisttharp, Azihn a malting of iye

From Weistar Lacseton, Lanzo twenty mittuns of iye and one malting of gist mealed

From the Hezul twenty mittuns of iye and one malting of gist mealed and from the same tharp Boio twenty mittuns of rye and twenty mittuns of gist malt, and Tiezo from the . . . one malting of iye

From Giapththarp, Williko twelve mittuns of iye, and one malting of gist, Renzo, from the same tharp, one malting of iye, and Hemoko, from the same tharp, two maltings of iye and one malting of gist mealed.

From Anon, Ghibho two maltings of iye

From Smithehosen, Eizo one malting of rye, at the same tharp Alzo twenty mittuns of iye.

From Huist Elama, twenty mittuns of 1ye

From Weltseton, Tiediko two maltings of 1ye, Beinhard, on the same thorp, twenty mittuns of 1ye, &c

From Holomseton, Azelin one malting of 1ye Wikmund, on the same thorp, and Dagerad and Azeko, the same (all like) to them

From Bochoft, Tiediko two maltings of 1ye

From Oronbek, Kanko h Raziko, on the same thorp, also Gatmar from the same thorp, and ten mittuns of 1ye Witzo, thirty mittuns of 1ye from the same thorp

From Giupling, Witzo one malting of 1ye Ratbiaht, from the same thorp, one malting of 1ye, and one ember of honey

From Saphurst, Manniko seven mittuns of 1ye, and one ember of honey Jazo, from the same thorp, twenty mittuns of 1ye, and two embers of honey

From Emisahun, Meni twenty mittuns of 1ye

From Sah Emisahun, Meinzo thirty mittuns of 1ye, and one malting of gust mealed Habo, from the same thorp, twenty mittuns of 1ye

From Dagmathon, Boro one malting of 1ye Lieveken, on the same thorp, just (all) so much

From Thapluun, Kanko twenty mittuns of 1ye

From Haswinkel, Waldiko fifteen mittuns of 1ye Kanko, on the same thorp, nine mittuns of 1ye, and on the same thorp, Eliko eight mittuns of 1ye Huniko, on the same thorp, one malting of 1ye, and two embers of honey

From Henthe, Roziko one malting of 1ye Hizil, on the same thorp, fifteen mittuns of 1ye Adbiaht, on the same thorp, thirteen mittuns of 1ye Abbiko, on the same thorp, ten mittuns of 1ye

From Mottonhem, Sizoo one malting of 1ye.

From Dullinghamson, Sizzo two maltings of 1ye

From Krikonhem, Ubik two maltings of 1ye.

From Belong, Witzo sixteen mittuns of 1ye

From Vornon, Sello two maltings of 1ye

From Sahunhem, Hameko two maltings of 1ye On the same thorp, Hameko, two III sol maltings of 1ye, and one ember of honey On the same thorp, Hoyko one malting of 1ye

From Waranthorp, Gunzo twenty mittuns of 1ye

From Beighem, Eilsuith eighteen mittuns of 1ye, and eleven and a half mittuns of gust malt On the same thorp, Sizoo owned ten mittuns of 1ye, and fifty and a half mittuns of gust malt.

(2)

These are the dues which are due at the Grange

From Walegardon, Haddo one malting of gust, and twenty mittuns of oats

Remgie, from Walegardon, six mittuns of gust, and two mittuns of wheat Hitzel from the five mittuns of gust Thiezo from the six mittuns of gust

From Anon, Zehiko one malting of gust

From Weltseton, Thiejiko one malting of gust

From Slade, Abbiko sixteen mittuns of 1ye

From Sahunhem, Hoyko one malting of 1ye

From Rehci, Lieviko one malting of 1ye

From Giffahust, Lanzo one malting of 1ye

From Mottonhem, Sizoo one malting of rye.

From Belon, Atzeko twenty mittuns of rye, and one malting of grist
 From Membahththorp, Hillo one malting of grist, and six mittuns of wheat

From Iezi, Raziko two mittuns of wheat, and three mittuns of rye "

Liuppo, from the Asterwald, two mittuns of wheat. His neighbour, ten mittuns of corn, and two mittuns of wheat

From Hornou, Sello one malting of grist

(3)

These are the dues from the Gange itself Lecmai, six mittuns of grist malt . . . and two cows, and two . . . swine, and two bacon-swine, and swine, each worth eight pennies, and three . . . and thirty cheeses, and three embers half of butter . . . and two white, and four-and-thirty hens, and two mittuns of eggs And to the Abbess, be two from Lecmai, and from Warethorp one swine, being worth sixteen pennies, and one sheep, and two embers of honey, and one malting of rye And Attiko from Weist, five dues of locks to the Abbess

From Smithelhuson, Azeko twenty mittuns of rye Manniko, from the same thorp, fifteen mittuns of rye, and two mittuns of melas Azeln and Hinkel, from the same thorp, each fifteen mittuns of rye, and two mittuns of meal

(4)

These are the obligations of the hov at Be (1) vainon . . . mealed maltings of grist, and a good swine, and four mittuns of rye bread, and eight to St Petionellas Mass even (all) so many, and six mittuns of wheat to the day

These are the obligations of the Forework

From Gestwil, eight maltings of grist, mealed, and two maltings of wheat, and nine swine

And from Telgei, four maltings of grist mealed, and one malting of wheat, and four good swine

And from Elislai, two maltings of grist mealed, and six mittuns of wheat, and one cow and two embers of honey, this shall he give to the Mass of Saint Bartholomew, &c, &c.

The remainder, which is as much Latin as Anglo-Saxon, is not translated. It contains no words which have not been already rendered into English

In the present maps, the names, as far as they have been identified, are as follows.—

Viehhof, Osterhuus, Loseten ———, Emsner, Vehtorf, Raestrup, ———, ———, Eimen, Schmeddehusen, Hoiste, Velsen, Holsten, Borcholt, Oibeke (?), Grobtingen, ———, Doemai, Dorphoin, ———, ———, Mattenheim, Düttinghusen, ———, Belon, ———, ———, Warlendorff, Berghem (?), Walgein, Schladen, ———, Rehe, ———, Mentrup, ———, ———, Telgte, ———, ———, Barnesfeld, ———; ———, ———, ———,

§ 100. Next comes a similar document, only shorter, from Essen, known as the *Rotulus Essensis*; to which we may add *The Legend of St Boniface*, or, *Fragmentum de Festo Omnium Sanctorum*, and the *Confessionis Formula*, these last two being taken from Essen MSS.

In the Original

Uan Uehus, ahte ende ahtedeg mudde maltes, ende ahte biot, tuena soster
cuto, uai mudde geiston, uai uothen theores holtes, to thum hogetidon, ahte
tan mudde maltes, ende thum uothen holtes, ende warhtig bikera, ende uscio
heimo misso tua ciukon

Uan Ekansketha, *similiter*

Uan Rongerenthorpa, *similiter*

Uan Hukietha, *similiter*, ana that holt to then hogetidon : : :
* * * (?)

Uan Brokhusen, to then hogetidon nigen mudde maltes, ende tuenteg bikera,
ende tua ciukon.

Uan Hoilen, nigen ende uftech mudde maltes, ende tue nothen theores
holtes, tue mudde geiston, uai biot, en suster cuto, tuenteg bikera, endi tua
ciukon, nigen mudde maltes to then hogetidon

Uan Nimhus, *similiter*

Uan Boithbeke, *similiter*

Uan Diene, to uscio heimo misso, tan ember honegas, to Pincoston su-
andon haluon ember honegas, endi ahtodoch bikera, endi uai ciukon

In English (literal)

From Viehhof, eight and eighty mittuns ~ of malt, and eight bread (?) two
soster of peas, four mittuns of barley, four other of dry wood, to the three
feasts, ten mittuns of malt, and three other of wood, and forty pitchers, and
to our Lord's mass two crocks

From Eickenscheid, *similiter*

From Rungeltoif, *similiter*

From Huckarde, *similiter*, without the wood to the feasts * * * *
: * * (?)

From Brockhausen, to the feast nine mittuns of malt, and twenty pitchers,
and two crocks

From Horl, fifty-nine mittuns of malt, and two other of dry wood, two
mittuns of barley, four bread, one soster of peas, twenty pitchers, and two
crocks, nine mittuns of malt to the feasts

From Nienhaus, *similiter*

From Borbeck, *similiter*

From Diene, to our Lord's mass, ten embers of honey, to Pentekost, seven
and a half embers of honey, and eighty pitchers, and four crocks.

§ 101.

In the Original

Vu lesed tho Sanctus Bonifacius Pauos an Roma uuas, that he bedi thena
Kiesur aduocatum, that he imo an Romo en hus gefi, that tha ludu unlon
Pantheon heton, wan thar uuorthon alla afgoda mna begangana So he it imo
tho regiuan hadda, so wieda he it an uses Diohtines era, ende uscio Fuon
Seta Manum, endi alleio Cristes martio, to thu, also thar ei mna begangan
vuarth thru menigi theio druulo. that thar nu mna begangan ueertha thru
gehugd alleio godes heligono He gubod the that al that folk thus dages also the
Kalend Nouember anstendit (?) to kenkon quam, endi also that godlika thanust
thar al gedon was, so withoi gewarf manno gewulik fia endi blithu to hus

* This word, which is also English, from the Latin *modus*, has been treated as
Keltic

Endi thanana so waith gewonohed that man hodigo, alther alleio thero waioldi, beged tha gehugd alleio Godes heligono, te thu so vuat so vu an allemo the-mo geia weigomeloson, that wi et al hodigo gefullon, endi that vu, thu thero heligono getlung, bekuman te themo ewigon lua, helpandemo usemo Drioh-tine *

In English (literal)

We read that when St Boniface, Pope, was in Rome, he bade the Caesar Advocatus to give him a house in Rome, that the people whilom called Pantheon, when there were all the heathen gods therein gone. When he had given it to him so hallowed he it to our Lord's honour, and our Lady's, the Holy Mary, and all the Christ's martyrs, to the end that, even as the multitude of devils had gone them, now should go in the thought on all God's saints. He bade that all the folk this day, the Kalends of November, (") to church should come, and also that when godly service there all done was, every man should depart glad and blythe home. And thence was the custom that all men, at the present time, over all the world, take thought of all God's saints, so that what we in all the year have forgotten, we should to-day fulfil, and that we, through their holy intercession, should reach the everlasting life, our Lord helping.

§ 102.

Ik gruho Goda Alomahtigon Fada, endi allon suon helagon wuhethon, endi thu Godes manne, alleio minero sundono, thero the ik githahita endi gisprak, endi gideda, faa thu the ik crist sun dia unciarian bigousta.

Ok ruhu ik so huat so ik thes gideda thes wuthai minen Cristmihedi uuari, endi wuthai minamo gilouon uuari, endi wuthai minemo bigihten uuari, endi wuthai minemo mestra uuari, endi wuthai minemo heidoma uuari, endi wuthai minemo ieha uuari.

Ik ruhu nithas, endi auunstes, hetias, endi bisprakiyas sueiannias, endi liganmas, finlustono, endi minero githio farlatanero, ouarmodias, endi tra-gi Godes ambahtas, horuulhono, manslahtono, ouaratas endi oueidiankas, endi ok wridhon mos fehoda endi diank.

Ok ruhu ik that ik gruulnd mos endi diank withar Got, endi minas heidomas iaka so ne ghield, so ik scolda, endi mer teida than ik scoldi.

Ik ru gruho that ik minan fader endi moder so ne cioda endi so ne minmoda so ik scolda, and endi ok minna biotthai endi minna suetstai endi minna othia histon endi minna fiuud so ne cioda endi so ne minmoda so ik scolda.

Thes gruho ik hluttarhiko, that ik aima man endi othia ehlendia so ne cioda endi so ne minmoda so ik scolda.

Thes ruhu ik that ik minna rungeron endi minna fillulos so ne leida so ik scolda. Thena helagon sunnuudag endi thia helagon missa ne fiuoda endi ne eioda so ik scolda. Vsa drohtinas lkhanon endi is blod mid sulikaru forhtu endi mid sulikaru minnu ne antfeng so ik scolda. Siakoto ne uisoda endi na na nothluti ne gaf so ik scolda. Sera endi unfraha ne trosta so ik scolda. Minan degmon so ieha ne gaf so ik scolda. Gasti so ne antfeng so ik scolda.

Ok ruhu ik that ik thia gruho the ik gruuenian ne scolda, endi thia ne gi-sonda the ik gisonan scolda.

Ik ruhu unichtaro gasibio, unichtaro ghorithana, endi unichtaro githan-kono unichtaro uuodo, unichtaro uueiko, unichtaro sethlo, unichtaro stadlo, unichtaro gango, unichtaro legaro, vnehtas cussannias, vnehtas

For the texts of §§ 101, 102, and 103, see Döring's *Denkmäler*, Vol. 1 Part 2, pp. 3-7, 9, 23, 24, 29, 35, and Lacomblet, in *Archiv für Geschichte des Niederlands*.

helsianmas, unichtas anfangas Ik gihorda heflunnussa endi unluema
 saspilon Ik gilorda thes ik gilouan ne scolda Ik stal, ik farstolan fehoda
 ana oiof gaf, ana oiof anteng Men eth suoi an vuethon Abolganhed
 endi gistiadi an nu hadda, endi mistumit, endi aunust Ik sundhoda an
 luggiomo gruuiscipia endi an flokanna Mma giudi endi min gibed so ne
 giheld endi so ne gifulda so ik scolda Vmchito las, unichto sang, ungihoisan
 uuas Mei spak endi mei sugoda than ik scoldi, endi miu selhon mid uuilon
 unoidon, endi mid uuilon ueikon, endi mid uuilon githanon, mid uuilon
 laston mei unsuuioda than ik scoldi

Ik uihu that ik an Knikun unichtas thahta, endi othua merda theiu
 helagun leccan Biscopos endi prestios ne cioda endi ne munuoda so ik
 scolda

Ik uihu thes allas the ik nu bmemmid hebbu endi bmemnian ne mag so ik
 it uuitandi dadu so unvutandi, so mid gilouon so mid ungilouon, so luat so
 ik thes gideda thes uuthar Godas uuillon uuai, so vuakondi, so slapandi, so an
 dag, so an nahita so an luibikanu tidi so it uaiu, so gangu ik is allas an thes
 Alomahitgon Godas mundburd, endi an sma gnatha, endi nu don ik is allas
 hlutahlukio mman bighiton, Goda Alomahitgon fadar, endi allon sman Helagou,
 endi thi Godas manna, geino an Godas uuillon te gibotaina, endi thi biddu
 gibedas, that thu mi te Goda githingi vueran uuilhas, that ik min hf endi
 minan gilouon an Godas huldon giendion moti

Translation

I confess to God, the Almighty Father, and all his Holy Saints and .
 . . . all my sins which I have thought, or spoken, or done, from the
 first that I erst began to work sins

And I confess that whatsoever of this I did, I did against my Christianity,
 and against my belief and against my understanding, and against my con-
 science, and against my example, and against my duty, and against my right

I confess envies and malice, and hate and calumnies, swearings and lyings,
 lusts and the loss of my days, overmood, and idle service of God, whoredoms,
 manslaughters, over-eating and over-drinking . . .

And I confess that I . . . drank against God, and of my duty
 took no account as I should, and wasted more than I should

I confess that I did not honour, and did not love my father and mother as
 I should, and eke my brothers and my sisters and my other nearest kinsmen
 and my friends, I did not honour and love as I should.

This I confess purely that I did not honour and love poor men and other
 miserables as I should

This confess I, that I did not teach my young ones and . . . as I should
 The holy Sundays and holy masses, I did not honour as I should Our
 Lord's body and his blood I did not take with such fear and such love as
 I should The sick I did not visit, and give them their need as I should

. . . I did not comfort as I should My tythes I did not give as I should.
 Guests I did not receive as I should

And I confess that I . . . that which I should not . . . and that
 I did not . . . that which I should . . .

And I confess unright . . . unright . . . and unright thoughts, unright
 words, unright works, unright . . . unright . . . unright goings, unright
 lyings, unright . . . unright greetings, unright receptions I heard idleness
 and unclean games I promised that I should not promise, I stole, I

Without leave I gave, without leave I took False oaths I swore,

on the altar, rage and strife I had in me and mistrust and envy I sinned in living . . . and cursing My times and my prayers I held not and fulfilled not as I should Unright I read, unright I sang, unobedient was I I said more and I kept silent more than I should, and myself with many words, and with many works, and with many thoughts, and with many lusts I defiled more than I should

I confess that I in church unright things thought, and of other things more than the holy lesson Bishops and priests I did not honour and love as I should

I confess that all these that I now have named, and which I cannot name, so as I did it wittingly or unwittingly, with belief, with unbelief, so that whatsoever I did against God's will so waking, so sleeping, so by day, so by night, so whatever tide it was, so go I always in the Almighty God's guidance, and on his grace, and now do I thus always purely in my conscience to God the Almighty Father, and all his Saints, and all willingly in God's will to pay the penalty for . . . that thou me to God . . . that I may live, and my belief in God's grace and mercy

§ 103 The evidence that the *Abrenuntiatio Diaboli* is Westphalian is less conclusive than that conveyed by the names Fieckenhoist and Essen Nevertheless, whilst neither Frisian nor Angle, it is referable to the pagan and semi-pagan districts of Germany.

The Original

Q Forsachis tu Diabolac ?

R Ec forsacho Diabolac, end allum Diabolgelde, end ec forsacho allum Diabolgeldæ, end allum Diaboles uuercum, and uuordum, Thunar ende Woden, ende Saxnot ende allum them unholdum the hno genotas sint

Q Gelobis tu in Got Alamehtigan Fadaer ?

R Ec gelobo in Got Alamehtigan Fadaer

Q Gelobis tu in Crist Godes Suno ?

R Ec gelobo in Crist Godes Suno

Q Gelobis tu in Halogan Gast ?

R Ec gelobo in Halogan Gast

In English

Q Renouncest thou the Devil ?

R I renounce the Devil, and all Devil—, and I renounce all Devil—, and all Devil's works, and words, Thunar, and Woden, and Saxnot, and all the unholy (ones) who are their fellows

Q Belvest thou in God the Almighty Father ?

R I believe in God, the Almighty Father

Q Belvest thou in Christ, God's Son ?

R I believe in Christ, God's Son

Q Belvest thou in the Holy Ghost ?

R I believe in the Holy Ghost

In the matter of *date*, the presumption is in favour of the *Abrenuntiatio* being older than anything less pagan than itself.

§ 104 The *Heliand* is *believed*, and that on good grounds, to represent the language of the parts about Munster. It is the most important specimen of its class. *Heliand* means *Healer*, or Saviour, the work so entitled being a Gospel History in the

Old-Saxon language, and in metre. Now, although it was in some part of Westphalia that the *Heland* took its form, it was in an English library that the MS. of it was first discovered. Hence it passed for a form of the Anglo-Saxon. But this form was so peculiar as to require an hypothesis to account for it, and the doctrine that a certain amount of Danish influence was the cause so far took form, and gained credence, as to establish the term *Dano-Saxon*. In the eyes, then, of Hickes, Lye, and the older Anglo-Saxon scholars, the *Heland* was a *Dano-Saxon* composition, and so it continued until the present century, when not only was its Danish character denied, but its Westphalian origin was indicated.

Specimens

(1)

Nativitas Christi pastoribus annuncata

LUC. II 8-13

Tho uuaid managun cud,	Then it was to many known,
Obar thesa uuidon uueroold.	Over this wide world
Uuados antfundun,	The words they discovered,
Thea thar, chuscalcos,	Those that there, as horse-grooms,
Uta uuairun,	Without were,
Uueros an uuahitu,	Men at watch,
Uunggeo gomean,	Horses to tend,
Felhas aftar felda	Cattle on the field
Gisahun finista an tuuo	They saw the darkness in two
Telatan an lufte,	Dissipated in the atmosphere,
Endi quam hohit Godes,	And came light of God
Uuanum thunh thun uuolcan,	—through the welkin,
Endi thea uuados thar	And the words there
Bileng an them felda	Caught on the field
Sie uuudun an fohtun tho,	They were in fight then,
Thea man an na moda	The men in their mood
Gisahun thar mahtigna	They saw there mighty
Godes Engl cuman,	God's angel come,
The m tegegenes sprac.	That to them face-to-face spake
Het that m thea uuados	It bade thus them these words,
"Uuht ne antthedin	"Dread not a whit
Ledes fon them hohta	Of mischief from the light
Ic scal eu quadhe libora thung,	I shall to you speak glad things,
Sudo uuario	Very true
Uulleon seggean,	Say commands,
Cudean craft mikil	Show strength great
Nu is Krist geboian,	Now is Christ born,
An thesere selbun naht,	In this self-same night,
Sahg bann Godes,	Blessed child of God,
An thera Dauides bung,	In the David's city,
Drohtin the godo	The Lord the good
That is mendislo	That is exultation
Manno cunneas,	To the races of men,

Allaio sinho fruma
 Thai gi ma fidan mugun,
 An Bethlehem bug,
 Bairo rikrost
 Hebbiath that te tecna
 That ic eu gatellean mag
 Unarun uuoidun,
 That he thai briundan hgid,
 That kind an eneia cribbium,
 Tho he si cuning obai al
 Eidun endi humles,
 Endi obai eldeo bairn,
 Uueioldes uualdand "
 Reht so he tho that uuoid gespra-
 cenun

So uuaid thai engilo te them
 Unim cuman,
 Helag heinskepi,
 Fon Hebanuuanga,
 Fagai fole Godes,
 Endi filu sprakun
 Lotuuoid manag,
 Ludeo Heiron ,
 Afliobun tho Helagna sang,
 Tho sic eft te Hebanuuanga
 Uundun thuuh thi uolecan
 Thea uuaidus hoidun,
 Huo thru Engilo craft
 Alomahtigna God,
 Sudo uueidlico,
 Uuoidun louodun
 "Dimida si nu," quadun sie,
 "Diohtine selbun,
 An them hohoston
 Himilo rikea,
 Endi findu an eidu,
 Friho banun,
 Goduuilgum gumun,
 Them the God antkennead,
 Thuuh hluthian hugi "

Of all men the advancement
 There ye may find him,
 In the city of Bethlehem,
 The noblest of childien
 Ye have as a token
 That I tell ye
 True words,
 That he there swathed leth,
 The chuld in a crib,
 Though he be king over all
 Earth and Heaven,
 And oer the sons of men,
 Of the world the Ruler '
 Right as he that word spake,

So was there of Angels to them,
 A multitude come,
 A holy host,
 From the Heaven-plains
 The fan folk of God,
 And much they spake
 Praise-words many,
 To the Lord of Hosts
 They raised the holy song,
 As they back to the Heaven-plains
 Wound through the wellun
 The words they heard,
 How the strength of the Angels
 The Almighty God,
 Very worthily,
 With words praised.
 "Love be there now," quoth they,
 "To the Lord himself
 On the highest
 Kingdom of Heaven,
 And peace on eath
 To the childien of men
 Goodwilled men
 Who know God,
 Through a pure mind "

(2)

Multitudo vult Christum regem facere, qui se in montem subducit.

MATTH XIV. 20-23, MARC VI 43-46, LUC IX 14-17, JOH VI 13-15.

That folc al faistod,
 Thea man an iro mode,
 That sie thai mahtigna
 Heiron habdun
 Tho sic hebencunung
 Thea hudi lobohtun
 Quadun that gio
 Ni uuudi an thut loht cuman

Eftha that he giuuald mid Gode
 An thesaru middilgaid,
 Meiron habdi,
 Enualdaran hugi,
 Alle gisprakun,
 That he uuari uuudig,
 Uuelono gehuulikes
 That he eidiuki

Uuasaio uuaisago,
 Uuudene uuerothuuelon,
 Nu he sulie geuut habaol,
 So grote craft mid Gode
 Thea gumon alle gruuald,
 That sie me gilobon,
 Te heroften geuun me to eunngo
 That Kiute in uuas
 Uuhtes uundig,
 Huand he thut uuerothulki
 Ende endi uphunnl,
 Thuh is enes craft,
 Selbo gruualhte,
 Endi sidon giheld,
 Land endi ludskepi,
 Thoh thes enigan gilobon ni dedin
 Uuede uuideraen,
 That al an is gruualde stad,
 Cumngukeo craft,

Egan mosti.
 Endi Kesuudomes,
 Megnthudo mahal
 Be thm in uuelde he
 Th i h theio manno spriaka,
 Hebbian enigan heidom,
 Helag diohtin,
 Uuerothkummges namon,
 Ni tho mid uuoidun staid,
 Uund that fole furdun
 Ac for mu tho thar he uuelde.
 An en gebugi uppan foh that bain
 Godes,
 Gelaro gelqudi,
 Endi is iungaron het,
 Obar enne seo sidon,
 Endi in selbo gibod,
 Uuar sie in eft te gegnos,
 Gangen scoldin

(3)

*Discipuli in nauicula lacuna procellosum traquentes noctu Christum aque uam-
 bulantem conspiciunt*

MATTH XIV 24-26, MARC VI 47-50, JOH VI 16-19

Tho telet that luduuciod,
 Aftai themu lande allumu,
 Tesoi fole mikil
 Sidon no fiah gnuet,
 An that gebugi uppan,
 Baimo ikeost,
 Uualdand an is uulleon,
 Tho he thes uuatares stade
 Samnodun thea gesidos Cristes,
 The he mu habde selbo gicorane,
 Sie tuelui thuh no tieuua goda
 Ni uuas in tueho iugcan,
 Nebu sie an that Godes thionost.
 Gerno uuelkin
 Obar thene seo sidon
 Tho letun sic suide an stiom
 Hohhurnd skip,
 Hluttan udeoni,
 Skedan skir uuater
 Skied hoht dages,
 Sunne uuaid ad sedle
 The seo lidandean,
 Naht nebulo bruunap
 Nathudun erlos
 Foiduuardes an fiod
 Uuaid thiu foithe tid
 Thea nahtes cuman
 Nerendo Crist

Uuarothea uuag lidand
 Tho uuaid uuud mikil
 Hoh uueder afhaben
 Hlamodun udeon
 Storm and stome
 Staidun foidun
 Thea uueros uuider uuunde
 Uuas in uuied hugi,
 Sebo soigono ful,
 Selbon ni uuandun,
 Lagu lidandea,
 An land cuman,
 Thuh thes uuederes geuun
 Tho gasahun sic uualdand Kriht
 An themu see uppan,
 Selbun gangan,
 Faan an fadon
 Ni mahte an thene fiod innan
 An thene seo sinan
 Huand me is selbes craft
 Helag anthabde
 Hugi uuaid an fohtun
 Theio manno modsebo
 Andiedun that it in mahtig fund,
 Te gidroge dadi
 Tho sprik in no diohtin to,
 Helag hebencumng,
 Endi sagde in that he iro heilo uuas

Endi he hrop san aftar thru
 Gahahom te themu Godes Sunæ,
 Man endi mahtig
 "Nu gi modes seulum
 "Fastes fahen
 "Ne si in foht hugi
 "Gibariad gi baldhco
 "Ik brum that barn Godes,
 "Is selbes sunu
 "The in uund thesumu see seal
 "Mundon uund thesan meristom '
 Tho spiac mu en theio manno angégum,
 Obar boid skapes,
 Baruundig gumo,
 Petrus the godo
 Ni uuelde pinc tholon,
 Uuatares uuti.
 "Ef thu it uualdand sis," quad he,
 "Herio the godo
 "So mi an munumu hugi thunkit,
 "Het mi than tharod gangan te thu,
 "Obar thesen gebenes strom,
 "Diohno obar diap uater,
 "Ef thu min diohtin sis,
 "Managoro mundboio"
 Tho het me mahtig Crist,
 Gangan mu tegegnes
 He uuaid garu sano,
 Stop af themu stanne,
 Endi striduun geng
 Foid te is firoaen
 Thru fiold anthabde
 Thene man thuih maht Godes
 Antat he mu an is mode bigan
 Andriaden diap uater.
 Tho he driben gisah
 Thene uueg mid uuundu.

Uundun ina udeon umbi
 Ho strom umbihing
 Reht so he tho an is hugi tuchode,
 So uuek mu that uater under,
 Endi he an theme uuag unan
 Sank an thene seostrom,
 Endi geino bad
 That he me tho he an nodun uuas
 Thegan an gethunge
 Thiodo Diohtin
 Antfeng me mid is fadmun,
 Endi fiagode sana
 Te hu he tho getuehodi
 "Huot thu mahtes getuioan uuel
 "Uuitten that te uuairun
 "That the uuatares craft,
 "An themu see innen,
 "Thunes sides in mahte,
 "Lagustiom glettien
 "So lango so thu habdes gelobon te mi
 "An thumumu hugi haido
 "Nu uuillu ik thi an helpun uuesen.
 "Neren thi an thesaru nodi"
 Tho nam me Alomahtig Helag bi han-
 dun
 Tho uuaid mu eft hlutter uater fast
 under fotun
 Endi sie an fadi samad
 Bedea gengun.
 Antat sie obar boid skapes,
 Stopun fan themu strome,
 Endi uater
 Stromos gestilld:
 Endi sie te stade quamun
 Lagu didandea,
 An land samen,
 Thuih thes uuateres geuun.

§ 105. The following is an extract from the same poem, with a translation into Anglo-Saxon by a modern scholar—the Rev. J. Stevenson. It is taken from a paper on the Heliand in the *Foreign Quarterly Review*, for April, 1831.

Than sat im the landes hudi
 Geginuuaid for them gumun,
 Godes egan barn
 Uuelde mid is spiacun
 Spahuuoid manag
 Læran thea hudi,
 Huo sie lof Gode,
 An thesum uueioldrikea,
 Uurkean scoldun.

Thænne sæt him se landes hude
 Ongeanweard fore tham gumun,
 Godes agan barn:
 Wolde mid his spæcun
 Wisa word manag
 Læran thone leode;
 Hu tha lofe Gode
 On thissun weoiold-ri-ce,
 Weoicun sceoldan

Sat in the end swigoda,
 Endi sah se an lango
 Uuas in hold an is hugi
 Helag drihten,
 Mildi an is mode,
 Endi tho is mund andloc,
 Umsde mid is wordum,
 Unaldandes sunn
 Manag mælic thing,
 Endi them mannun
 Sæge spahun wordum,
 Them the he to theru spæcu
 Crist Alowaldo
 Gecoran habda,
 Hunlike uuarm allaro
 Immanno
 Gode uuerthoston
 Gumono cunnies
 Sæge in tho te sode,
 Quad that the sahge uuarm,
 Man an thesoro middilgard,
 Thie hei an no mode uuarm
 Aime thruh odmodi,
 Them is that euuga riki
 Swido helaglic
 An Hebanuuange
 Sin lib fargeben

Sæt him tha, and swigode
 And sah and-langne
 Wæs tham hold on his hyge
 Ilahg drihten,
 Mild in his mode,
 And tha his muth onleac
 Wisade mid his wordum
 Wealdandes sunn
 Manag mælic thing,
 And tham mannun
 Sæge swæsum wordum
 Them the he to there spæce
 Crist Alwealda
 Gecoren hæfde
 Ilwæc wæron allera
 Eam-manna
 Gode weortheastan
 Gumena cunnies
 He sæde him tha to sothe,
 Cwæth that hi selge wæron,
 Manne on thissun middan-gearde,
 Tha hei on heora mode wæron
 Eame thruh eadnode,
 Them is æhtes rice
 Swiðe hælaglic
 An Heolen-wange
 Sin lif forgifen

The same in Latin

Tunc sedebat se teræ custos,
 E regione (et) coram hominibus,
 Dei proprius filius
 Voluit cum ejus sermonibus,
 Sapientia dicta multa,
 Docere hunc populum,
 Qua illi laudem Deo
 In hoc mundo
 Agere debent
 Sedebat se tunc atque tacebat,
 Procumbebatque se per longum
 Fuit illis amicus in ejus mente
 Sanctus Dominus,
 Benignus in anima ejus,
 Et tunc os resecravit,
 Docerebat cum ejus verbis,
 Gubernantis filius
 Multa præclara.

Et illis hominibus
 Dixit sapientibus verbis
 Illis quos ille hunc sermonem
 Christus omnipotens
 Electus erat,
 Qui fuerunt, omnium
 Misericorum
 Deo maxime dilecti
 Illuminum gentis
 Narravit illis tunc pro certo,
 Dixit, eos faustos esse,
 Homines in hac orbe,
 Qui hic, in eorum mente erant
 Pauperes humilitatis causâ,
 Illis est ista æterna regno,
 Valde sanctum munus
 In Cœli campo
 Perpetua vita data

§ 106 The following specimens are known under two names; as the *Glossæ Lipsienses* and as the *Carolinian Psalms*. Of these, the first arose out of the fact of the famous Lipsius having been the first to draw attention to them. Instead, how-

ever, of copying them in full, he contented himself with selecting the chief words a proceeding which gave to his specimens the character of *glosses* rather than aught else. The text, of which the first portion was given *in extenso* by Von de Hagen, A.D. 1816, was accompanied by the opinion that it was referable to the age of Charlemagne, an opinion adopted by both Ypey and Clarisse, from whom the following specimens are taken. Whether they are Old Saxon in the strictest sense of the word is doubtful. They are treated by the above-named writers as samples of the Old Dutch of Holland.

From the Text of A. Ypey
Tuolkundig Magazin P 1, No. 1—p 74.

PSALM LV

2 GEHORI Got gebet min, in ne fuuun [p] bida minna, thenke te mi in gehori mi

3 Gidruout bin an tilogon minno, in mistrot bin fan stimmon fiundes, in fan arbeide sundiges

4 Uuanda geneigedon an mi uniecht, in an abulge unsuot uuaion mi

5 Heita min gidruout ist an mi, in forta duodis fiel ouu mi

6 Fortha in buonga quamon ouei mi in bethecoda mi thuusteinussi

7 In ic quad "uuie sal geuan mi fetheion also duuon, in ic fluogon sal, in iaston sal"

8 Ecco' firnoda ic fiende, ende bleif an endi

9 Ic sal beidan sin thie behaldon mi deda fan luzzilheide geistis in fan geuudere

10 Bescuigi Heio, te deile tunga no, uuanda ic gesag uniecht in fluoc an buigi

11 An dag in an naht umbefangan sal sia ouu mura io, uniecht in arbeit an mitdon no in uniecht

12 In ne te fuoi fan staton no prisma in losunga

13 Uuanda of fiunt flukit mi ic tholodit geuusso, in of thie thie hatoda mi, ouu mi mikila thing spieke, ic bunge mi so mohti gebuian fan mo

14 Thu geuusso man emmuodigo, leido min in cundo min

15 Thu samon mit mi suota nann muos an huse Godes giengon uu mit gelum

16 Cum dot ouu sia, in nihiu stign an hellon libbunda Uuanda arbeide an selethe no, an mitdon mi

17 Ic eft te Gode nepo, in Heio behielt mi

18 An auont in an mojan in an mitdondage tellon sal ic, in kundo, in he gehoron sal

19 Ilosin sal an firthe sela minna fan then thia ginacont mi, uuanda under managon he uuas mit mi

20 Gehorun sal got in gnetheron sal sia, thie ist er uueioldi

21 Ne geuusso ist mi uuhsil, in ne forhtedon Got Theneda hant sma an uutheloni

22 Bennollon ucuntscap sina tedeilda sint fan abuly anseimes sinis; in gnekoda heita sin Geuueicoda sint uuoi't sin in ouir ohg, in sia sint giscot

23 Uump ouu herin sorga thung, inde he thi tion sal, in ne sal giuon an uuon uuankalheide rehlikin.

24 Thu geuusso got leidon salt sin an pute anfrison Man bluodo in losa ne solun gemitdelon daga nō Ik eft ic getuon sal an thi heilo.

PSALM LVI

2 Gnathu mi Got uuanda tiat mi man Allan dag anafchtende uuto-noda mi

3 Triadun mi fiunda mine allan dag, uuanda manage fehtinda angegin mi

4 Fan hor dagis fortan sal ik Ic geuusso an thi sal gitanon

5 An Gode sal ik luon uuort min, an Gode gituoda ic Ni sal ic fortan uuad duo mi fleise

6 Allu dag uuort mina faruueton angegin mi Alla gethahti nō an uuele

7 Uuunū solun in beigin salun sig Sia feisna min keuuarun sulun

8 Also thohudun sila minna fui meuethe behaldona, saltu duon sia an abulge folc te bicean saltu

9 God' lif min cundida thi Thu sattes tianu minna an gegnuuudi thūmo

10 Also in angeheite thūmo than bekeron salun fiunda mine behaluo In so uuilkin dage ic ruopdu, ecco' bicanda uuanda got min bist

11 An Gode sal ic louan uuort, an Heilo sal ic louan uuort, an Gode gituoda ik, ne sal ik fortan uuad duo mi man.

12 An mi sint, Got, geheita thūmo, tha ik sal geuan louis thi

13 Uuanda thu generedos sila minna fan dode in fuoti mine fan ghden, that ic like fore Gode an hohite libenden

PSALM LVII.

2 Gnathu mi Got gnathu mi, uuanda an thi gituot sila min. In an seado fitheraco thūmo sal ic gituon untis fahet unecht

3 Ruopen sal ik te Gode hoista, Got tha uuahala dida mi

4 Sanda fan Humele in gineieda mi, gaf an bismeic te triadon mi

5 Santa Got gnatha sina in uuarheit sma, in generida sela minna fan miton uuelpo leono Ship ik gdiuout Kint manno tende nō geueupene in sceifte, in tunga nō suet scalp

6 Iheu thi our Himla Got, in an alleri then guohkkeide thme

7 Stric macedon fuoti minna, in boigedon sela minna. Gruouon fui antsceme min guoua in fielon an tha

8 Gao heita min, Got, gao heita min, singn sal ic in lof quethan

9 Upsta guohhheide minna, upsta psaltare in cithara Up sal ik stan adio.

10 Bigan sal ik thi an folkon, Heilo Lof sal ik quethan thi an thiadi

11 Uuanda gumiklot ist untes te Himelon gnatha thm, inde untes te uuelpo uuarheit thm

12 Uphene thi our Himla, Got, in our alla ertha guohheide thme.

PSALM LVIII.

2 Of giuaro geuusso rihnussi spieket, rehleo irduomit kint manno

3 Geuusso an hertan unicht uuurkit an eithon, an unreht hende uuua macunt

4 Gafioda sint sundiga fan uuambun, urodon fan me spiacun losathing

5 Hemodi mi affr gehenussi slangu also aspidis douuero in stuppendero oron iro

6 The ne sal gihorn stimma angalendero in tonfeis galendiro uuishco

7 Got tebrican sal tende nō an munde iro, kennebaco leono sal tebrican Got.

8 Te meuethe cumum sulun also uuatu mende, theni bogo sma untes sia ummethiga uuerthin

9. Also uuahs that flutat gnumena uuerthunt, onii fiel fur in ne gesagon sunna.

10 Er farnamin thorna iuuua hagnthorn, also libbende also an abulge
arsuuelgt sia

11 Blithon sal rehlico so he gesiet uuraca Hendi sina uuaseon sal an bluodi
sundigs

12 In quethan sal man of geuusso ist uuasmo iihlico Geuusso ist Got
uduomundi sia eithon

PSALM LXVIII

2 Upstandi Got in testorda uueithin fiunda sina in fient thia hatodon imo
fan antsceine sinn

3 Also tefait iouc tefain, also flutit uuals fan antsceine furis So faifain
sundiga fan antsceine godis

4 In ieltica gouma uuukint in mendint an antsceine Godis, in gelieuent an
blithone

5 Singet Gode lof quethet namon sinn, uueg uuukit imo thia upsteg our
nihegaltg Heio namo imo

6 Mendit an gegnuundi sinro Gidruoueda uueithint fan antsceine sinro
fadeia uueisono in seepenn uundouano

7 Got an stede heilegono sinro, Got thie anuano duot emis sidn an huse.
Thie untleidende bebundona an stercke also thia thia uuhoistidunt thia
uuonunt an grauon

• 8 Got mit so thu giengi an gegnuundi folkis thins, so thu thumolthi an
uustinn

9 Eitha uruot ist, geuusso himela druppon fan antsceine Godis Sinai, fan
antsceine Godis Iil *

10 Regn uullign utselthon saltu got euu thinn in ummahtg ist Thu
geuusso thuo fremdos sia

11 Quicafe thina uuonon sulun an iro Thu geruodos an suotit hinro Got.

12 Heio grut wort predicedon mit cieffe mikilo

13 Cunig cieffe lieuis lieuis, in scuonis husis te deline giruoun

14 Of gi slapit under midton sumnungun, fetheion duon fairsuedero, in
afista rugs no an bleike goldis

15 So undiscerit humilisco cuninga ouu sia—

16 Fan sneue uuita sulun uueithun an Selmon berg. Godis berg feit, berg
sueuot, berg feitt.

17 Uuaunt gi, berga, gequahlt? Beig an themo uuala gelicast ist Gode te
uuonone an imo Geuusso, Heio uuonon sal an ende

18 Reduunagon Godes mit ten thusint manohfalt thusint blithendeio Heio
an mi an Sinai an Heilgon

19 Vpstigis an hoi, namu hafta antfiengi, geua an mannon Geuusso ne
ugelouunda an te uuonene Heio Got

20 Geuuet Heio an dag daga uuehksis gsunda faitht duon sal uns Got sal-
dano unseio

21 Got unser Got behaldana duonda, in Herrin Herin utfahrt dodis.

22 Nouantoh Got te breacan sal houit fiundo sinro an misdadn iro.

23 Quad Herro fan Basan bekeian sal ic, keion an dubi seuues

24 That natuerthe fuot thn an bluode, tunga hundo thnro fan fiundun fan
imo

25 Gesagon ganga thina Got ganga Godes minis, cunniges minis, thie ist
an heilgn

26 Furi quamon furista gefuogeda singundon, an midton thieino timparinno

- 27 An sammungun genuet Gode Herrou fan brunnun Isrl
 28 Thar Beniamin umgehig an muodis ounferti, funsta Juda leidora iro,
 funsta Zabulon, funsta Nephthaim
 29 Gebut God cæfti thimo, gefesti that, Got, that tu uonktus an unsig
 30 Fan duome thum an Ierlm * th offon sulun emunga geuon
 31 Refang der riedis, sammunga stero an euon folco, that sia ut scietlun
 thi thia gecoroda sint mit siluer
 32 Te stori thadi thia unga uulmt emun sulun bodon fan Aegipto,
 Aethiopia funemmun sal hemde iro Gode
 33 Riki erthion singit gode singit herim
 34 Sangit gode thia upstigit our himel huncles to osterhalun
 35 Ecco! geuon sal stumma sinro stemma cæfte geuet guolicheide Gode ouu
 Istr | mikil sm in craft sm craft sm an uuleun
 36 Vunderlic Got an heiligon sum, God Irl hie geuon sal craft in sterke
 folks sins Geuunt Got

PSALM LXIX

- 2 Beholdan mi duo Got, uuanda ingiengon uuati uutes to selon minio
 3 Gestekt bi ic an lemno dripi, in ne ist geuoesamnessi Ic quam an
 dripi seunes, inde geuudere bescendida mi
 4 Ic aruododa ruopinde heisa gidana uurthun kelon minna, te fuoron ougon
 min sal ic gtruon an gode minn
 5 Gumanoch foldoda sint ouu locka houwis minis thia hatodon mi thankis
 Gestekoda sint thia heftodon mi fiunda min mit unchte thia ic ne nam thuo
 fagalt
 6 Got thu uueist unuut mine, in misdadi minna fan thu ne sint beholona
 7 Ne scamman sig an mi thia bidint thi Heiro, Heiro cæfte Ne uuerthun
 gesecondit ouu mi thia suocunt thi Got Israhels
 8 Uuanda thimo thi tholoda ik bisnei bethceoda scama antseami min
 9 Elelendig gedan bi brothion minon in fiemthi londen muodu minio
 10 Wanda ando luses thunis at mi, in bisnei lastundero thi fielon ouu mi
 11 In ic theceoda an fastigon sela minna, in gidan ist an bisnei mi
 12 In gesatta uuat min te heron, in gedan bi mi an spelle
 13 Angegun mi spræcon thia saton an portun, in an mi sungun thia diueneun
 uuun
 14 Ic geuusso gebet min te thi Heiro, tit uuala te hkenne Got An menege
 gnathion thimo gehoi mi an uuarheide saldun thimro
 15 Genere mi fan horouue that ne ic minne stecke genere mi fan then thia
 hatodon mi, in fan driophithon uuatio
 16 Ne mi besenka geuudere uuateres, nohne faasuelge mi dripi, noh ne
 antlucke ouu mi putte munt no
 17 Gehoi mi Heiro, uuanda guot ist gnatha thina, aftr menege gnathiono
 thimro scauuuo an mi
 18 In ne keie antseame thun fan knapin thimin, uuanda ic geuuerthenot
 uuurthun smuono gehoi mi
 19 Thende selon minio in gnere sia, thimo fiunda minna nlosi mi
 20 Thu uuest laster minn in scama minna in ueia minna
 21 An gegnuuadi thimro sint alla thia uuonont mi Lasten is beida herta
 min in armuodis, in ic beid thia samon gedruout uuurthun in ne uuas the
 getrostoda in ne fant
 22 In gauonan muos min galla, in an thurste min drenkelon mi mit etige

* Ierusalem

† Israel.

- 23 Uueithe dise no fui in an stricke, in an uuthelion in an beswichede
 24 Duncle uueithum ougon no that sia ne gesian in iukgi ne io an crumbe
 25 Utgut oum sia abulge thina, in heitmuodi abulge thimio befangi sia
 26 Uueithe uuonunga no uuosti, in an selethon no ne sia tha uuone
 27 Uuanda thana thu sluogi ehtidon sia, in ouei sei uuudeno immio goco-
 don
 28 Gesette unreht our unreht no, in ne gangint an rehtnessi thim
 29 Fardihgon uueithum fan buoke libbendeio, in mit rehtheon ne uueithon
 gesciuona
 30 Ic bin aim in tieghaft, salda thim Got antfieng mi
 31 Louon sal ic namo Godis mit sange, in gemikolon sal ic imo an loue
 32 In gehcon sal ic Gode oum calf uuunhoim foibb. engimde in clauon
 33 Gesian arnaa in blithi, suokit Got in libbun sclu uuua
 34 Uuanda gehorda aima Heio, in gbuudana sma ne faruuup
 35 Louun imo lumela in eitha seu in alla cnepunda an mi
 36 Uuando Got behaldan duon sal syon in gestitoda sulun uueithum burge
 iudae In uuanon sulun thar in mit eim geuunnon sulun sia
 37 In cumi scalco sinio meton sal sia in thia uuunnt namo sinan uuonon
 sulun an imo

PSALM LV

Literal translation

- 1 Hear God bidding mine, and not fore-warp (reject) buildings mine, thank
 to me, and hear me
 2 Saddened be (I) on toil mine, and mistrust be (I) from voice enemies'
 (fiends), and from labour (of the) sinful
 3 When then they charged on me unright, and on rage unsweet were
 (to) me
 4 Heart mine is troubled on me, and fight death's fell over me
 5 Fight and trembling came over me, and decked (covered) me darkness
 6 And I quoth, "Who shall give me feathers al-so-as (of a) dove, and I flee
 shall, and rest shall"
 7 Lo! I went far flying, and remained in the wilderness
 8 I shall bide them who held me do (make me safe) from littlehood of ghost
 (sinking of spuit), and from the weather (storm)
 9 Be-scourge Lord! to deals (in pieces) tongues their, when I saw un-
 right and cursing in the borough (city)
 10 On day and night shall they be surrounded with over their walls, un-
 right and labour in middle of them, and unright
 11 And not depart from streets then (?) and lying
 12 When if a fiend (enemy) cursed me I (had) borne it ywiss (certainly)
 and if they that hated me over me nuckle thing spake, I had buiowed
 (hidden for protection), as I might buiow from them
 14 *But it was* thou, ywiss, a man onc-moody (simple in mood), leader mine,
 and known-one mine
 15 Thou, together with me sweet rimmedst (tookest) mess on God's
 house gang we with pleasure
 16 Come death over them, and netherwards let them stodge (go) on Hell
 living When craftiness in their chambers, in middle then (the middle of them)
 17 I after to God cried and the Lord held me

18. On even, and on morning, and on mid-day, tell shall I, and make known, and he hear shall

19 Loose shall on peace soul mine from them who vexed me when under (amongst) many he was with me

20 Hear shall God, and lower them: who is ere (before) the world

21 Not, ywiss, is to them change, and not feared God. He stetched his hand in retaliation

22 They defiled their agreement, to-dealed (divided) are from anger of his on-shine (countenance), and . . . hearts their. Weakened (soft) are words his over (more than) oil, and they are shot

23 Warp over the Lord sorrow thine, and he thee save shall, and ne shall give for aye weakness to the right-wise

24 Thou, ywiss, God lead shall them on *the* pit of horror Men bloody and lying ne shall mid-deal (halve) days then I after trow (believe) shall on the Lord.

The same from the English Old Testament

1 Give ear to my prayer, O God, and hide not thyself from my supplication

2 Attend unto me, and hear me I mourn in my complaint, and make a noise,

3 Because of the voice of the enemy, because of the oppression of the wicked for they cast iniquity upon me, and in wrath they hate me

4 My heart is sore pained within me and the terrors of death are fallen upon me

5 Fearfulness and trembling are come upon me, and horror hath overwhelmed me

6 And I said, Oh that I had wings like a dove! *for then* would I fly away, and be at rest

7 Lo, *then* would I wander far off, *and* remain in the wilderness

8 I would hasten my escape from the windy storm *and* tempest

9 Destroy, O Lord, *and* divide their tongues for I have seen violence and strife in the city

10 Day and night they go about it upon the walls thereof mischief also and sorrow are in the midst of it

11 Wickedness is in the midst thereof: deceit and guile depart not from her streets

12 For it was not an enemy *that* reproached me, then I could have borne it neither was it he that hated me *that* did magnify himself against me, then I would have hid myself from him

13 But it was thou, a man mine equal, my guide, and mine own acquaintance

14 We took sweet counsel together, *and* walked unto the house of God in company

15 Let death seize upon them, *and* let them go down quick into hell for wickedness is in their dwellings, *and* among them

16 As for me, I will call upon God, and the Lord shall save me

17 Evening, and morning, and at noon, will I pray, and cry aloud. and he shall hear my voice.

18 He hath delivered my soul in peace from the battle *that was* against me: for there were many with me

19 God shall hear, and afflict them, even he that abideth of old Selah.
Because they have no changes, therefore they fear not God

20 He hath put forth his hands against such as be at peace with him he hath broken his covenant

21 The words of his mouth were smoother than butter, but war *was* in his heart his words were softer than oil, yet *were* they drawn swords

22 Cast thy burden upon the Lord, and he shall sustain thee he shall never suffer the righteous to be moved

23 But thou, O God, shall bring them down into the pit of destruction : bloody and deceitful men shall not live out half their days, but I will trust in thee

The same in Dutch (from the Twaalfkundig Magazyn).

1 Hoor, God ! mijn gebed, en verwerp niet myne bede ! denk tot (aan) mij, en hoor mi !

2 Ontroerd ben ik en mijne bezigheheden en misstootig ben ik van de stem des vijands en van het leed (mij) van den zondigen (aangedaan).

3 Want zij neigden op mij het onrecht, en in verbolgenheid waren zij mij onzooet

4 Mijn hart is ontroerd in mij, en de vries des doods overviel mij

5 Vries en beving kwamen over mij en duisternis dedeckte mi

6 En ik zeide, " wie zal mij geven redeken als van eene duif, en ik sal vhegen en zal rusten "

7 Zie ik verveide vliedende ende bleef in de woestijn

8 Ik zal beiden Hem, die mij behouden deed zijn van luttelheid des geestes en van onweder.

9 Werp (hen) schrikverwekkend neder, Heer ! verdoel hunne tongen, want ik zag onrecht en vloek in den boeg

10 Bij dag en bij nacht zal haar (de stad) boven hare muren omvangen onbillykheid en leed in het midden van haar en onrecht

11 En van hare straten voer met weg woekerzucht en loosheid

12 Want indien een vijand mij vloekte, ik zoude het gewis dulden, en indien die, die mij haatte, over mij groote dingen sprek, zoude ik mij verbeigen, zoo het mogte gebeuren, van (of voor) hem

13 (Maar) gy gewis éénmoedig mensch, mijn leidsman en mijn konde

14 Gy naamt zamen met mij het zoete moes In het huis Gods gingen wij met ondeling vertrouwen.

15 Kome de dood over hen, en de levenden moge nederstijgen in de Helle. Want booze arglistigheid is in hunne zalen, in hun midden.

16 In echter riep tot God, en de Heer behield mij

17 In den avond en in den morgen en in den middag zal ik vertellen en verkondigen, en Hij zal verhooren

18 Verlossen zal (Hij) in vrede mijne ziel van degenen, die mij genaken, want onder menigen was Hij met mij.

19 Verhooren zal God en vernederen zal (Hij) ze, (Hij) die is eer de wereld (was)

20 Gewis is bij hen geene verwisseling, en zij vreesden God niet. Hij striekt zijne hand uit in wederloon

21 Zij bevuilen zijne oorkonde (verbond), verdeeld zijn ze wegens de verbolgenheid zijns aanschijns En zijn hart naderde Zijne woorden zijn gewoekt en over (zachter dan) olie en zij zijn geschut.

22 Werp over (op) den Heer uwe zoig ende Hij zal u onderhouden En Hij zal met toegeven in eeuwigheid de wankeling van eenen rechtvaardigen

23 Gewis Gij, God! zult hen leiden in den put der rampzaligheid De mannen des bloods en de looze bedriegers zullen hunne dagen niet tot het midden biengen Ik echter zal vertrouwen op U, Heer!

§ 107. The following glosses are also looked on as Old Saxon.

De portentis
Brachytes, thru hobdiga
Thumanum, thuhendiga
Canis, gisa
De gigantibus
Subteritoe (*lubo*), mithuromo.
Aduncus (*naribus*), cumbon
De transformatis
 (*De illa magna*), famosissima, ma-
 ristun.
Sceleratorum, fundigara
Crabones, hoinobeion
De pecoribus
Dictamnium, stafuunt
Arnos (*villosos*), boi
Fulos (*color*), falu
Permetas, tálhéd
Pilis in contrarium, struua
Zelant, ándod
Uvacitas (*equorum*), quiched
Quales umbras anetum desuper
ascenditum in aquarum speculo,
 sulic so the scimo
 uuas theio uuethaio an themo
 uuataia so bli uuithon thia
 sciep
Generosos (*equos*), athilaion
Burdo (*ea equo et asina*), priuz
De bestis
Pardus, lohs
De serpentibus
Cristatus (*diaco*), coppodi
Olfacta (*suo eos necat*), stunka
Cuculato (*tractu corporis*), himgodi
Obtugesunt, suellad
Lacertus, egthassa
De minutis vermicibus
Tredonas (*greci vocant lignorum*
vermes), matho
Oestrum, bremmia
Bibiones, uunnuumi
Gurgulio, ham'tra

Turmus (*in lardo*), matho
De piscibus
Serratam cristam, scapam, camb
Tortuosa (*cauda*), sluuua
Ingeniosum, glauuon
Pseudulos, slaxca
(Quamlibet ad cursum refores)
Alligare pedes, triagi uoti
Conchae, scalun
Incremento (*luna*), uuasdoma
Turgescent, uuassad
Humorem, blod
Tradunt, telliad
Uvunt, metat
Eriodit, enagit
Negant quidam canes latrare
Quibus carnis in offerenda
Vira datur, genuuehd.
De aribus.
Piepetes (*volatus*), snuunia
Crues, kiau
Cornices, kiauun
Inferum (*collum*), ingebogdon
Luscinia, nahtigala
Acredula, ahtigala
Bubo, hue
Feralis (*avis*), eishc
(Hic prior in eudaveribus oculum),
 petit, kanagt
Annosa, old
Pice, agastium
Poetice, scopheo
Discrimine, scetha
Liquescenti (*uuio*), gemalanamo
Deprehensus est, beuundan uuahit
Auratum (*signa sub fluctibus colli-*
git), uuedaiio
Falconem, fulz, t, fegsna
Quod eorum colla ad singulas con-
uerfiones mutant colores, so sni
 ambulocod so uuandlod sni na
 bli

<i>Veneras (aves)</i> , heilica	<i>Vesicula</i> , blasa
<i>Origometra</i> , ueldhón	<i>Displosa</i> , testotam
<i>Semina venenorum</i> , samun hettar uu- tio	<i>De aere</i>
<i>Vetuerunt</i> , uarbudun	<i>Subtilis (aer)</i> , the hluttare
<i>Caducum morbum</i> , uallandia suht	<i>Commotus (aer)</i> , geuuagt
<i>Cristis</i> , stalón	<i>Gelantibus (nubilis)</i> , caldondion
<i>Gasula (avis)</i> , sencondi	<i>Turbulentus</i> , gesuoikan
<i>Sollicitissimus</i> , cleihstig.	<i>De II fluminibus</i>
<i>Fulce</i> , meridiei	<i>Incremento (fluminis)</i> , anfluzi
<i>Aet chere</i> , hel uues	<i>Limum</i> , lemon
<i>Institutione</i> , uan leinunga	<i>Circuitus (multos)</i> , umbiuérbí
<i>Rogum (sibi construct)</i> , háp	<i>Instru (bestiae)</i> , te theio uues
<i>Olorum autem tantum vim esse</i> <i>dicunt, ut lignum eis perfusum</i> <i>non ardeat ac ne vestis quidem</i> <i>contacta adiuvatur</i> , höld lescid uuan eia, uuadi ne biennid	<i>De terrá</i>
<i>Admirati quoque calce</i> , mengdamo eia et calca	<i>(In modum) centri</i> , dodion
<i>Glutinare (feruntur) vitri frag-</i> <i>menta</i> , iennian tibiokan gleste hopa	<i>Orbis</i> , hehning
<i>De minutis animalibus</i>	<i>Ambit</i> , buaid
<i>Fuci (de mulo, respæ de asino)</i> , dian	<i>De Asiá</i>
<i>Circendela</i> , golduumil	<i>Fatescunt</i> , tefarad
<i>Papiliones</i> , uuoldaan	<i>Meribus</i> , medon
<i>Malus</i> , pappillan.	<i>De Europá</i>
<i>Culex</i> , mugga	<i>Germania</i> , thrudisca ludí
	<i>De insulis</i>
	<i>Alueuua</i> , bikar
	<i>Gummi</i> , dupil
	<i>Aeris</i> , éi
	<i>Tyrannorum</i> , mermahtigao
	<i>Ariatio</i> , euidū
	<i>Sales argentinos</i> , senion salt
	<i>Apustio</i> , éida
	<i>Intervalla</i> , etto

§ 108. So are the two following charms . *—

(1)

In the Original.

Visc flot aftar themo uuatare,
Ueibustun sina uetherun
Tho gihelda ma Use Druhtin
The seluo Druhtin, the thena uisc ghelda,
The ghele that heif theu spuihelti!

Translation

Fish floated after the water,
Burst his feathers
Then healed him Our Lord
The self-same Lord, that that fish healed,
May He heal! . (°)

(2)

Gang ut, neffo mid ngun neffi(k)lmon!
Ut fana themo maige

* See Dorow, *Denkmale*, Part III, pp 262, 263

An that ben , fan themo beno
 An that flesc , ut fan themo flesgke
 An thia hud , ut fan theru hud
 An thesa stiala.
 Diohtan uuorche sa !

Translation.

Go out with mine (?)
 Out from the marrow
 Into the bone , from the bone
 Into the flesh , out from the flesh
 Into the hide , out from the hide
 Into these (?)
 Lord, work so !

Such are the remains of the so-called Old Saxon, or the Saxon of Westphalia—a form of speech which we must suppose to have graduated into the Frisian on the north and north-west, into the Angle on the north and north-east, and into the Frank on the south. Though specially connected with the two former, it must, by no means, be separated from the latter: inasmuch as it is highly probable that between the most southern of the Saxons and the most northern of the Franks, such differences as existed were political rather than ethnological. This, however, is a question on which more will be said in the sequel.

CHAPTER XI.

GERMAN ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.—PARTS OF GER-
 MANY FROM WHICH IT WAS INTRODUCED.—INTERNAL EVI-
 DENCE.—LANGUAGE —THE OLD FRISIAN.

§ 109. OF the Frisian we have specimens in three stages, and, at least, as many dialects. It is *Old Frisian* that must most specially be compared with the Anglo-Saxon.

Transition of Letters.

á in Frisian corresponds to *ea* in A S, as *dad*, *rád*, *lús*, *strám*, *bám*, *cáp*, *áre*, *háp*, Frisian, *deád*, *reád*, *leás*, *streám*, *beám*, *ceáp*, *ear* *e*, *heap*, Saxon, *dead*, *red*, *loose*, *stream*, *tree* (boom), *bargain* (cheap, chapman), *ear*, *heap*, English

é in Frisian corresponds to (1), the A S *æ*, as *eth*, *tehen*, *hel*, *biéd*, Fries, *áp*, *tácen*, *hál*, *brád*, Saxon, *outh*, *token*, *hule*, *broud*, English,—(2), to A S *æ*, *hær*, *déde*, *biédu*, Frisian, Fries. *hær*, *ded*, *brædan*, A S, *huir*, *deed*, *roast*, English.

e to *ea* and *æ* A S—Frisian, *thet*, A S *þæt*, Engl *that* Fris *gers*, A S *gærs*, Engl *grass*—Also to *eo*, *piestere*, Fr, *piest*, A S, *priest*, Engl, *berch*, F1, *beorh*, A S, *hull* (*beig*, as in *weberg*, Engl), *meloh*, Fr, *meoloc*, A S. *milk*, Engl

i to *eo* A S—Fr, *vi the*, A S *eore*, Fris *hute*, A S *heorte*, Fris *fir*, A S. *feor*, = in English, *earth*, *heart*, *fur*

já=*eo* A S, as *ljála*, *beódan*, *bíd*—*thet fjá de*, *feorðe*, *the fourth*—*sják*, *seóc*, *suk*.

ju=*eo* A S, *ijucht*, *iyth*, *iyht*—*fjund*, *fieond*, *friend*.

Dz=A S *c g*, F1 *seiza*, *līdzja*, A S *seegan*, *liegan*, Engl *to say*, *to lie*

Tz, *ts*, *sz*, *sth*=A S *c oi ce*, as *szereke*, or *sthereke*, Frisian, *cyrice*, A S, *church*, Engl, *czetel*, F1, *cytel*, A S, *kettle*, Engl

ch F1 = *h* A S, as *thgach*, Fr, *beóh*, A S, *thugh*, Engl, *berch*, *beóh*, *hull*. (*beig*), *dochter*, *dohtor*, *daughter*, &c.

§ 110.

Declension of Substantives

(a)

Substantives ending in a Vowel

	Neuter	Masculine	Feminine.
Sing.	Nom 'Aie (an ear)	Campa (a champion)	Tunge (a tongue)
	Acc 'Aie	Campa	Tunga
	Dat 'Aia	Campa	Tunga
	Gen 'Aia	Campa	Tunga
Plur.	Nom 'Aia	Campa	Tunga
	Acc 'Ara	Campa	Tunga
	Dat 'Aron	Campon	Tungon
	Gen. 'Arona	Campona	Tungona.

(b.)

Substantives ending in a consonant

	Neuter.	Feminine
Sing.	Nom Skip (a ship)	Hond (a hand).
	Acc Skip	Hond
	Dat Skipe	Hond
	Gen Skipis	Honde.
Plur.	Nom Skipu	Honda.
	Acc. Skipu	Honda
	Dat. Skipum	Hondum (-on)
	Gen. Skipa	Honda.

With respect to the masculine substantives terminating in a consonant, it must be observed that in Anglo-Saxon there are two modes of declension. In one, the plural ends in *-s*; in the other in *-a*. From the former the Frisian differs; with the second it has a close alliance; *e. g.*—

	Saxon.	Frisian.
Sing.	Nom. Sunu (a son)	Sunu.
	Acc. Sunu	Sunu.
	Dat. Suna	Suna.
	Gen. Suna	Suna.

	<i>Saxon</i>	<i>Frisian</i>
<i>Plu</i>	<i>Nom</i> Suna	Suna
	<i>Ace</i> Suna	Suna
	<i>Dat</i> Sunum	Sanum
	<i>Gen</i> Sunena	(Sunena).

Declension of Adjectives

(a)

		<i>Indefinite</i>	
	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Nom.</i> God	God	God
	<i>Ace</i> God	Gódene	Gode
	<i>Dat</i> Góda (-um)	Goda (-um)	Godere
	<i>Gen</i> Godes	Godes	Godere.
<i>Plur</i>	<i>Nom</i> Góde	Gode	Gode
	<i>Ace</i> Góde	Gode	Góde
	<i>Dat</i> Godum (-a)	Gódum (-a)	Godum (-a)
	<i>Gen</i> Godera	Gódera	Godera

(b)

		<i>Definite</i>	
	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Nom</i> Góde	Góda	Góde
	<i>Ace</i> Góde	Goda	Goda *
	<i>Dat</i> Goda*	Goda*	Góda *
	<i>Gen</i> Goda*	Góda*	Góda *
<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Nom</i> Góda*	Góda*	Góda *
	<i>Ace</i> Goda*	Goda*	Góda *
	<i>Dat</i> Góda (-on)	Goda (-on)	Góda (-on)
	<i>Gen</i> Goda (-ona)	Goda (-ona)	Góda (-ona)

In respect to the Pronouns, there is in the Old Frisian of *Dutch* Friesland no dual number (the *North* Frisian has one), as there is in Anglo-Saxon. On the other hand, however, the Frisians (whilst they have no such form as *his*) possess, like the Icelandic, the inflected adjectival pronoun *sin*, corresponding to the Latin *suus* whilst, like the Anglo-Saxons, and unlike the Icelanders, they have nothing to correspond with the Latin *se*.

In Frisian there is between the demonstrative pronoun used as an article, and the same word used as a demonstrative in the limited sense of the term, the following difference of declension. —

		<i>Article.</i>	
	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Nom</i> Thet	Thi	Thjú
	<i>Ace</i> Thet	Thene	Thá
	<i>Dat</i>	Thá	There
	<i>Gen</i>	Thes	There
<i>Plur</i>	<i>Nom</i>	Tha	
	<i>Ace</i>	Thá	
	<i>Dat</i>	Thá	
	<i>Gen</i>	Thera	

The Demonstrative in the limited Sense of the Word

	<i>Neuter</i>		<i>Masculine</i>		<i>Feminine</i>
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Nom</i>	Thet		Thi	se
	<i>Acc</i>	Thet	Thene		se
	<i>Dat</i>		Tham		There
	<i>Gen</i>		Thes		There

In the inflection of the verbs there is between the Frisian and A S this important difference In A. S the infinitive ends in *-an*, as *macian*, to make, *læran*, to learn, *bærnan*, to burn, whilst in Frisian it ends in *-a*, as *maka*, *lêra*, *berna*.

<i>Sing</i>	1	Beine	<i>I burn</i>
	2	Beinst	<i>Thou burnest</i>
	3	Bernth	<i>He burns</i>
<i>Plur</i>	1	Bernath	<i>We burn</i>
	2	Beinath	<i>Ye burn</i>
	3	Beinath	<i>They burn</i>

The Auxiliary Verb Wesa, To Be

	<i>Indicative</i>		
	<i>Present</i>		<i>Past</i>
<i>Sing</i>	1 Ik ben		1 Ik } Was
	2 ?		2 Thú }
	3 H1 is		3 H1 }
<i>Plur</i>	1 W1 }		1 W1 } Weion
	2 I } Send		2 I }
	3 Hja }		3 Hja }

	<i>Subjunctive</i>		
	<i>Present</i>		<i>Past</i>
<i>Sing</i>	1 2 3 Se		1 2 3 W1e
<i>Plur</i>	1 2 3 Se		1 2 3 Weie
<i>Infñ</i>	Wesa	<i>I, Part</i> Wesande.	<i>Past Part</i> E-wesen

§ 111.

Old Frisian Laws.

Asega-bog, 1 3 pp 13, 14 (*Ed Wurda*)

Thet is thru thiedde hodgest and thes Kynig Keiles ieff, theter allera monna ek ana sma eyne gode besitte umberavat Hat ne se thet ma hinc urwinne mith tele and mith iethe and mith ruchtta thungate Sa hebberc alsam sin Asega dema and dele to hoda londruchte. Ther ne hach nen Asega nenne dom to delande hit ne se thet hi to fara tha Keysere fon Rume eswieren hebbe and thet hi fon da hodon ekeren se Sa hoch hi thenne to demande and to delande tha fiande alsam frounde, thuch des ethes willa, ther hi to fara tha Keysere fon Rume eswieren heth, tho demande and to delande widuon and weson, waluberion and alle weilosa hodon, like to helpande and sine thea knilnge. Alsa thi Asega nmth tha umruchtta mada and tha ulouada panunga, and ma him utinga mi mith twam sine juenethon an thes Kyniges bonne, sa ne hoch hi nenne dom mar to delande, tuch thet thi Asega thi

bitekmath thene presteie, hwande hia send siande and hia skulun wesa agon there hehga Keistenede, hia skulun helpa alle tham thei hiam seluon nauwet helpa ne muge

The same, in English

That is the third determination and concession of King Charles, that of all men each one possess his own goods (house?) unriobbed. It may not be that any man overcome him with charge (tales), and with summons (rede), and with legal action. So let him hold as his Asega (judge) dooms and deals according to the land-right of the people. There shall no Asega deal a doom unless it be that before the Cæsar of Rome he shall have sworn, and that he shall have been by the people chosen. He has then to doom and deal to foes as to friends, through the voice (will) of the oath which he, before the Cæsar of Rome has sworn, to doom and to deal to widows and orphans, to way-farers and all defenceless people, to help them as his own kind in the third degree. If the Asega take an illegal reward, or pledged money, and a man convict him before two of his colleagues in the King's Court, he has no more to doom, since it is the Asega that betokens the priest, and they are secong, and they should be the eyes of the Holy Christendom, they should help all those who may nought help themselves.

Later Form.

Friesche Volks-Almanak, pp 84, 85

Dat oder landrucht is, hweiso dyo moder hei kyndes eerwe foekapet, jefta foerwixled mit har fyonda reed eer dat kind jeng is, als hit jengich se, likje him di caep, so halde hit, ende likje him naet, so faec hit oen syn ayn eerwe sonder stryd ende sonder schulde

So hwaso dat kind bifucht jefte buawet op syn ayn eerwe, so biecht hy tyen lyoedmeick ende to jens dne fianc (?) dat sint XXI schillingen ende alle da lyoed agen him to helpen ende di fianc, dat hy comme op syn ayn eerwe, deer hi eer bi rucht aechte hi ne se dat hio et seld hadde jef seth, jef wixled truch deia hia haudneda oen, deer hio ds kyndes des livers mode hulp. Dyo forme need is. hweiso een kynd jong is finsen ende fitered noerd oer hef, jefta sutha wr bugh, soe moet dio moder hei kyndes eerwe setta ende sella ende her kynd losa ende des livers bihelpa. Dyo odea need is. jef da jere dore wridet ende di heta honger wr dat land faert, ende dat kynd honger steia wil, so moet dio moder hei kyndes eerwe setta ende sella ende capia har bein ku ende ey ende coen, deema da kynde des livers mede helpe. Dyo tiedde need is als dat kynd is al stocknaken jefta huusleas ende dan di tuestere nevl ende calda winter oencomt, so faert aller manick oen syn hof ende oen syn huus ende an wanne gaten, ende da wylda dei seket dyn holla beam ende der bugh a hly, aldeci hit syn lyf oen bihald a mey. sa weynet ende scayt dat onjenga kynd ende wyst dan syn nakena lyae ende syn huusleas ende syn fader deer him reda schuld to jensd dyn honger ende winter nevl cald dat hi so diepe ende dimme mita flower neylen is onder eke ende onder da eida bisloten, ende bitacht, so moet dio moder her kyndes eerwe setta ende sella, om dat hio da bihield hadde ende biwae also lang so hit onjerick is, dat hit oen foiste ner oen hoenger naet forfare.

In English

The other landright is. whenever the mother sells the inheritance of her child, or exchanges (it) with rede (counsel) of her friends before the child is

of age, when he is of age, likes he the bargain, let him hold it, and does he not like it, let him fare (enter) on his own inheritance without strife and without debts

Whoever fights or bereaves the child on his own ground, he forfeits ten lodemarks, and to the king's attorney the mulct is XXI schillings, and all the lede (people) ought to help him and the king's attorney that he may come to his own inheritance, which he owned before by right unless she has sold, or set (pawned) or exchanged it through one of the three headneeds (necessities) by which is helped the life of the child. The first need is whenever a child is made prisoner and fettered northward over the sea, or southward over the mountains, the mother must set (pawn) and sell her child's inheritance and release her child and save its life. The other need is if the years become dear, and sharp hunger goes over the land, and the child will starve of hunger, then the mother must set and sell her child's inheritance, and buy her child's cows and ewes, and corn, wherewith the life of the child is helped. The third need is when the child is stark-naked, or houseless, and then the dark fog and the cold winter come on, when every man fares (enters) his house and its appurtenances, and lurking-holes, and the wild deer (beasts) seek the hollow beam (tree) and the lee of the mountains, where it may save its life then moans and weeps the minor child, and shows his naked limbs, and his being houseless, and (points at) his father, who should provide for him against hunger and the wintry fog-cold, that he so deep and dumb is locked up and covered under the earth with four nails so the mother must set and sell her child's inheritance, since she has the keeping and guarding as long as (the child) is under age, that it dies not from frost or from hunger

In the following extracts from the *Litteræ Brocmannorum*, edited by Wiarda, the translation is in German. The Brocmanni were East Frisians.

1

Thit is thu forme kere ther Brocmen keren hebbath thet hira Redewa skelm thingra hira reum ut and thene ende

2

Alsa tha Redewa alia eiest ongun-gath and to hape kemen send, sa skelm al under ena suera eta mena loge oppa Sente Jacobe thet hia buta penningum and buta bedum helpa skele tha eima alsa tha rika, tha fiunde alsa tha fiunde

3

And spieema thene Redewa on umbe the lessa meide icflia umbe the

1

Dies ist die erste Kur, welche die Brockmannen gekuet (beliebet) haben, dass ihre Richter sollen Gericht halten ihr Jahr aus und zu Ende

2

Wenn also die Richter zuerst eintrieten und zusammen sind, so sollen sie alle unter einem (zusammen) schweren in der gemeinen Versammlung auf den Heiligen Jacob, dass sie ohne Pfenningen und Bitten (ohne Geld und Gunst) den Armen helfen, wollen, so wie den Reichen, den Feinden, wie den Freunden

3

Und bespricht man den Richter wegen eines (genommenen) geringeren

mara, sa undungeo mith sex monnum undie tha forma and under tha othere beinninge and hi selua tha sogunda And thi Talemone with the Sibbe ther ur thene sueren leith, ther tha worde leda skel mith sex ethum And thi Talemone undunge ac also umbe tha meide and tha Rediewa diwe thet rucht foith fon tha Talemone, ther thenne weldech send And hweder sa tha rediewa ieftha tha Talemone thus worde brecht, sa ieke hi tha hudum achta meika, and tha Ruchtum ene halne hageste mere, and thi clagere bisuere sine meide And druath tha Talemone ieftha tha Rediewa thit rucht naut foith, sa gere hia mith achta merkum.

4.

Theia Redieuand ierim skel stonda to tha Sunnandeibfara Walburgodei Isti Walburgedei a Sunnande, sa halde ma thenne eria

5

And thet wellath Brocmen Thet ter ahec Redieu sette sine Helgena monnum ene engleskere mere werth goldis thurum wiken, ei tha Sunnande, er hia ofgunge eta mena lege And hia kethe him thene frethe bi achta merum And dether aeng hudamon tha Redieu engua skotha, sa felle, hit a tura wegena, and thi Redieu bisuere sine skatha.

6

And tha Redieu kethe ut alle ruchte frethar fiuwertine nachten er tha ofgunge Vrteppese engne frethe witlike and hi wrwnnen weithe sa

oder grosseren Geschenkes, so entgehe er (der Anklage) mit sechs Mannen unter der eisten und unter der zweiten Geburt und er selbst sey der siebende. Und der Talemone wisse (bewahre) die Verwandtschaft dessen, uber den er geschworen hat (der unter seiner Gerichtsbarkeit stehet) und der die zeugen vorfuhren soll mit sechs Eiden. Und der Talemone entgehe auch also wegen eines (genommenen) Geschenkes Und die Richter sollen dieses Recht wider den Talemone betreiben, die alsdenn waltend sind (im dem Amte stehen Und wenn es dem Richter oder dem Talemone an diesem zeugnisse gebriecht, so entrichte er dem Volke acht Mark und den Richtern eine halbe hochste Mark und der Klager beschwore sein Geschenk. Und treiben die Richter oder die Talemone dieses Recht nicht durch, so busen sie es mit acht Marken.

4

Das Jahr der Richter soll stehen bis zu dem Sonntage vor Walpurgis-Tag. Ist der Walpurgis-Tag am Sonntage, so halte man den volkegehenden

5

Und das wollen die Brockmanner. Dass jeder Richter bei seinem heiligen Manne setze (deponire) ein Goldstück von dem Weithe einer engischen Mark drei Wochen vorher, ehe er von der gememen Versammlung (als Richter) abgethet Und dann sollen sie ihm den Frieden abkundigen bei acht Marken Und thut dann Jemand aus dem Volke dem Richter einigen Schaden, so busse er es zwiefach, und der Richter beschwere seinen Schaden

6

Und die Richter sollen alle rechte Friedensbruche vierzehn Tage vorher auserkennen, bevor sie abgehn Uebergehen sie einige Friedensbruche wissentlich, und sie dessen uberfuhret

felle sene tuskette Ieftha undruchte
vrikethe, sa fellesene enfaldech

* * *

218

And hwasamanemon asleyth innaie
keika a hundred meika tha ludem and
sechtik tha Helgum Nelleth hia of
there keika naut vnga ther thenne on
send sa vnge thi iedieua thur in tha
keika sweren heth and kethese of
Nellath hia naut unga sa beine hi thet
forme beken bi achta meicum thes
selua deis, and ungath hia thenne naut
of sa beine alle sine sithai tha beine
thesletera deis and sogene tha lude
alec lura bi achta meicum And
hoc hua sa tha beine naut ne beint
and sine lude naut brencht sa la-
dema oppa luna alia erist and fiucht
hi witha sithai sa felle hi a tura
wege

219

Hweisama enne bogere ieftha ene
selsketta brencht toie case alsa
monege achta mete reke thi hauding
tha ludem Weith thi bogere slem
sa lidze geisfelle Ac hert hi vter
lond and weit spieke vmbe thet ield
sa stonde thi hauding thei to fara
theine inne let heth

220.

Hweisamar enne mon uta huse
bernt, ieftha inna weigath, ieftha ut-
geld and hne thenna wugic, sa ieldoma
hne mith thurum ieldum and thet
hus te bernande and hundred meika
tha ludem And alsa monege sare
wegad weithat inna ieftha uter etere
case alsa monege hundred merca tha
ludem, and alsa monege hus te
bernande.

weiden, so bezalen sie sie doppelt
Spiechen sie aber dieselden uniecht
aus, so bezalen sie einfach

* * *

218

Und wo man einen Mann in der
Kuche einschlagt, so soll man hundert
Maik dem Volke und sechzig den
Heiligen bezalen Wollen die von
der Kuche nicht abziehen, die darin
sind, so gehe der Richter, der uber die
Kuche beendet ist, hin und fordere
sie ab Wollen sie nicht abziehen,
so zunde er das erste Feuerzeichen
an bei Strafe von acht Maik an dem-
selben Tage, und ziehen sie dennoch
nicht ab, so sollen alle seine Amts-
genossen an dem folgenden Tage die
Feuerzeichen anzunden, und dadurch
jeder bei Strafe von acht Maik das
Volk versammeln Und wer von
ihnen die Feuerzeichen nicht anbrennt
und seine Leute nicht zur stelle
bringt, so gehe man zuerst auf ihn
los, und fechtet er denn wider seine
Amtsgegenossen, so busse er doppelt

219

Wenn man einen Bogenschutzen
oder eine, Gesellschaft (mehrere) bei
einem Streite bringet, so soll der
Anfuhrer so viele, dem Volke bezalen.
Wird der Bogenschutze erschlagen,
so bleibt er ungebusst Ist er ein
Auslander und man spricht um das
Wehrgeld, so soll der Anfuhrer dafur
stehen, der ihn hingefuhret hat

220

Wo Jemand einen Mann aus dem
Hause brennt, oder darn wurget,
oder heraus treibet und denn wurget,
so entgelte er ihn mit dreifachem
Wehrgelde, und sein Haus verbrenne
man, und hundert Maik sind dem
Volke zu entrichten Und so viele
darn oder daraus ewurget werden
bei dem Streite, so viele Maiken sind
dem Volke (zu entrichten) und so
viele Hauser zu verbrennen

CHAPTER XII.

GERMAN ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.—PARTS OF GER-
MANY, ETC.—INTERNAL EVIDENCE —LANGUAGE.—THE MIDDLE
FRISIAN

§ 112 WITHOUT determining too nicely at what exact time
the Old Frisian stage ceases, we may take the middle of the
seventeenth century (*say* A.D. 1650) as date for the fullest
development of the Middle

1 :
Swiet, ja swiet is 't, oerie mieto
't boaskien foar e jonge lie;
Kieftich swiet is 't, sizz' ik jietje,
As it get mei âlders iie
Mar oais tiget 'et to'n pleach,
As ik oan myn geafeynt seach

2
"Gounce Swobke, lit uws pearje,"
Bea hy har mei mylde stemm
"Ofke," sei se, "ho seoc 'k it kleanje!"

Wist du ' iie to houte in mem?"
"Ljeaf! dat num ik to myn laest"
Dear mei wier de knôte faest

3
Da dit pear togear scoe ite,
In hja hene mun gewin,
Heite seach, as woe hy bite,
Mem wier stjoersch in lef ien sin

"Ofke," sei se, "elk jier in bein.
Wier ik fâem! ik woe 't so jein"

4
Houte in Hoatske Sneems to keamer

Mekken it mei elkoarme klear.
Tetke knigge Sjolle keamer,
To Sint Eal by wyn in bjeer
Nu rint elk om as in slet,
In bekleye 't, mar to let

5
Oeds die better, nei ik achtje,
Da hy Saets syn tiou toser
Hy liet de âlders even plachtje,

1 :
Sweet, yes sweet is over measne
The marrying for the young people
Most sweet is it, I say yet,
When it goes with the eldels' rede
But otherwise it tends to a plague,
As I on my village saw

2
"Golden Swobke, let us pan,"
He bade her with a mild voice
"Ofke," she said, "How should I
clean it!"

Wist thou ' iede father and mother?"
"Love! I take this to my last"
Therewith was the knot fast

3
When this pair together should eat,
And they had no gain,
Father saw as if he would bite,
Mother was stern and cross of hu-
mour

"Ofke," she said, "each year a child.
Were I maid! I would I were."

4
Houte and Hoatske every Sunday in
the inn

Made it clear with each other
Tetke got Sjolle the pedlar
To St Alof's by wine and beer
Now each runs about as a slut,
And complains, but too late

5
Oeds did better as I heed,
When he said to Saets his troth:
He let the eldels even plight,

* From the Preface to Dr Bosworth's Anglo-Saxon Dictionary.

Hwet so oan elk ich joene mei
Nu besit hy huws in schuw',
In syn bein fleane all' man uwi

6

Oik, myn Sôan, wolt du bedye,
Run naet oan allyk ien moll' !
Jeld in iie lit mei dy fiye,
Bein, so gean' dyn saken wol
Den seil de himel uwi dyn dwaen

Lok in mylde seiming' jaen

What they on each (*edge*) side gave
Now he possesses house and bairn,
And his children outdo all men

6

Oik, my Son, wouldst thou thrive,
Run not on all like a mole,
Let age and iede woo with thee,
Child, then go thy affans well,
Then the heaven shall give over thy
domgs

Luck and mild blessings.

The chief classics of the Middle Frisian literature are Gysbert (Gilbert) Japicx, from whom the preceding specimen is taken, and Althuisen

CHAPTER XIII.

GERMAN ORIGIN OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE —PARTS OF GERMANY, ETC —INTERNAL EVIDENCE.—LANGUAGE —THE NEW FRISIAN OF THE DUTCH PROVINCE OF FRIESLAND.

§ 113 OF the Frisian, as it is spoken at the present time in the Dutch province of West Friesland, the following is a specimen.

ABE IN FETSE *

ABE —Ho djoer binne de mieren, Fetse ? Ik haw juster net nei sted wæst

FETSE —'k wit net, sa hwat by de daelder om, eak ien kromke er oei

ABE.—Wierne ei al ju ?

FETSE —Ja, dêr stiene al hele keppels It liket dat se rom binne, mar it wier myn soarte net

ABE —Heste den dyn fæste mieren jeis ? Hawwe se hjar eigen kost, jümme mieren ?

FETSE —Hwet mienste ? dat ik my de eaien fen 'e kop frette litte wol ? Ik haw summeis genoach oan twa uwthongere Waldju, dy 't 'k by my yn de ongetud ha'

ABE —Jane jümme se den jouns eak neat ?

FETSE —Ja, den kye se sa hwat ein heal knoadfol suwpenbry, in dat behim-melje se eak suwkerswiet Ik wit net wêr se it beichje yn hjar smelle pansen Hja binne wis oars fen binnen as ien Fries

ABE —Ei, kom ju ! It binne ommeis eak minsken as wy

The same, in the Dutch of Holland

ABE —Hoe duur zyn de mieren Fetse ? ik ben gisteren niet naar de stad geweest

FETSE —Ik weet het niet, ongeveer een daelder en ook een krumtje er over

ABE —Waren er veel

* From the *Scheervinkel fen Joute-Baes*, pp. 1-3.—(*Dinter, i. e. Deventer*, 1835.)

FETSE —Ja, er waen al heele hoopen. Het schynt dat ze rumm zyn, maar het waen geen van myn soort.

ABE —Hebt gy dan uwe vaste mieren jaarlyks? Hebben uwe mieren hunne eigen kost?

FETSE —Wat bedoelt gy? dat ik my de ooren van het hoofd zal laten eten? ik heb in den zomer genoeg aan twee uitgehongerde Woudhieden welke ik by my heb in de hooping.

ABE —Geeft gy ze dan 'savonds ook niets.

FETSE —Ja, dan krygen ze ongeveer een geheele kruiwagen vol karnemelk, en dat eten ze ook zuikerzoet op. Ik weet niet waar ze het bergen in hunne kleine dammen. Ze zyn zeker inwendig verschuillend van een Fries.

ABE —Och kom reis! het zyn immers ook menschen als wy.

In English

ABE —How dear are (*what is the price of*) the mowers, Fetse? I was not in the town yesterday.

FETSE —I wot not; about a dollar a man and a bit (*cumb*) over.

ABE —Were there plenty of them?

FETSE —Yes, there stood whole heaps. It seemed as if there were enough of them, but it is not my sort.

ABE —Hast thou then your mowers regular (*fast*) by the year? Do they keep themselves (*have they their own cost*) your mowers?

FETSE —What meanest thou? That I should let my ears be eaten off my head? I had enough in summer, with two starved woodland-men, that I had with me at the hay-time.

ABE —Did you not then give them anything in the afternoon?

FETSE —Yes! Then they must have (*care*) about a whole bucketfull of porridge (*soup and barley*), and that must be as sweet as sugar. I wot not where they buy it in their small paunches. They must ywiss (*certainly*) be of a different sort in their insides from a Fries.

ABE —Come now! They are still men like ourselves (*as we*).

It Ewangeelje fen Matthéwees

1 Do nou Jesus beine wier to Bethlehem yn Judea yn kening Herodes dagen, hen, binne dêr wizen fen éasteradelen to Jerusalem oankomd, siz-zende

2 “Hwære is di kening fen di Jeuden, di beine is?” “Wy hawwe ommeis syn steære yn it éasten sjoen ind binne komd om him to bidden.”

3 Di kening Herodes nou, as hy dit hearde, waard éang ind hiel Jerusalem mei him.

4 Ind di haedpiêsters ind di scrufteleârden by ienoár bringonde fiéagge hy hjar, hwær di Christus berne wide moast?

5 Hja nou seimen tsjun him. “To Bethlehem yn Judea, want sa is scréaun thioch di profet.”

6 ‘Ind dou, Bethlehem lân’ fen Juda, dou biste lang di minste naet onder di prinsen fen Juda; want uwt dy seil di heder foatkomme, dy myn folk weidje seil.”

7 Do hat Herodes di wizen stâlkes roppen, ind hi fiéagge hjar wakker nei di tud, do di steære opdéage wier.

8 Dêrop hjar nei Bethlehem stjoerende sei hy, “Reisgje hinne ind fornim

fitich nei dat beinke, ind as jimme it foun' hawwe stjoer my tynge, dat ik eak kom ind it hildje "

9 Hja den di kening heárd hawwende binne foarttem, ind hen, di steaie dy 't hja yn it éasten sjoen hiene, gong foar hjar uwt, ont hja kaem ind stoé' boppe it plak, dêi it bernke wier

10 Do hja nou di steaie seagen foihuwggen hja mei wakkei gréate blydscip.

11 Ind yn it huws kommende séagen hja it boike mei Maria syn mem, ind knibbeljende hadde hja it hilde

12 Ind hjar kastkes opdwaende brochten hja him jeften, goald ind wierk ind myrie Ind yn di droage throch goadlike ynjouwinge formoáanne, dat hja naet nei Herodes to bek géan moasten forsidden hja lâns ien oare wei wer nei hjar lân ta

13 Do hja nou westem wieine, hen, 's hearen yngel kaem as ien scynsel foar Joseph yn di droage, sizzende, "Forris ind min it boike ind syn mem, "ind flechtje yn Egypten, ind bljouw dêr ta dat ik it dy sizz Herodes omers seil it boike sukje om it déad to meitsen "

14 Hi doz forusjende naem it boike ind syn mem yn di nacht ind teach er.

15 Mei wei nei Egypten ta, ind hy wier dêi oan di déad fen Herodes ta, dat sa neikomme scoe, hwat di hêare spratsen hie 'throch di profeet sizzende "Uwt Egypten haw 'ik myn soan roppen "

16 Do Herodes séach, dat hy fen di wizen betitzen wier, wêid hy swide gummich, ind dêi syn feinten op ástjoerende het hy alle bein, dy to Bethle-hem ind yn hjar gerjochtigheid wierne, fen kant holpen, fen twa jier ind doer onder, nei di tud, dy hy wakker by di wizen uwifiske hie '

17 Do is uwtkomd hwat fen di profeet Jeremias sprutssen wier, sizzende,

18 "Ien stumme is yn Rama heard, geklei ind great getjurm Rachel Kriet oer hjar bein, ind hja woé hjar naet threástje litte omdat hja wei wierne "

19 Do nou Herodes uwt di tud wier, 'hen, s'hearen yngel kaem as ien scynsel foar Joseph yn di droage yn Egypten, sizzende,

20 "Forrus, nim it boike ind syn mem, ind géan yn it lân' fen Israel, want hja binne forstoan, dy di siele fen it boike sochten "

21 Hy nou forrusjende naem it boike ind syn mem ind kaem yn it lân fen Israel

22 Mar do hy heárde, dat Archelaus yn Judea kening wier foar syn heit Herodes wier hy scruten om dêr hinne to géan, mar throch ien goadelike iepenbieringe yn di droage formoáanne is hy fortein nei Galileadelen.

23. Ind dêr kommende tsjonne hy hin yn di sted dy Nazareth hjit, dat sa neikomme scoe, hwat fen di profeten sem is, dat hy Nazarenus néamd wude scoe'.

The same in Dutch

1 Toen nu Jezus geboren was te Beth-lehem, *gelegen* in Judea, in de dagen van den Koning Herodes, ziet ' *eenige* Wyzen van het Oosten zijn te Jeruzalem aangekomen

2 Zeggende. waar is de geboren Koning de Joden ? want wij hebben zijne ster in het Oosten gezien en zijn gekomen, om hem te aanbidden

3 De Koning Herodes nu, *dit* gehoord hebbende, werd ontroerd en geheel Jeruzalem met hem,

4 En byeenvergaderd hebbende al de Overpriesters en Schriftgeleerden des volks, vraagde van hen, waar de Christus Zon geboren worden.

5 En zij zeiden tot hem te Beth-lehem, in Judea *gelegen*; want alzoo is geschreven door den Profeet:

6 "En gj Beth-lehem, *gy* land van Juda ' zyt geenozins de minste onder de boisten van Juda, want ut u zal de Leidsman voortkomen, die myn volk Isiael weiden zal "

7 Toen heeft Herodes de Wijzen heimelyk geroepen, en vernam naastiglyk van hen den tyd, wanneer de stei verschenen was,

8 En hen naer Beth-lehem zedende, zede hy "ieist heen en onderzoek naastiglyk naar het kindeken, en hols gj het zult gevonden hebben, boodschapt het mij, opdat ik ook kome en hetzelfde aanbidde "

9 En zy, den Konng gehoord hebbende zyn heengereisd En, ziet ' de ster, die zy in het Oosten gezien hadden, ging hun voor, tot dat zy kwam en stond boven *de pluats*, waar het kindeken was

10 Als zy nu de ster zagen, verhengden zy zich met zeer groote vreugde,

11 En in het huis gekomen zynde, vonden zy het kindeken met Maria, zyne moeder, en nedervallende hebben zy hetzelfde aanbeden, en hunne schatten opengedaan hebbende, biagten zyhem geschenken, goud, en wierook en mirre

12 En door Goddelyke openbaring vermaand zynde in den droom, dat zy niet zouden wederkeeren tot Herodes, vertrokken zy door enen anderen weg weder naa hun land

13 Toen zig nu vertrokken waren, ziet ' de Engel de Heeren verschynt Jozef in den droom, zeggende "sta op en neem tot u het kindeken en zyne moeder, en vlied in Egypte en wees aldaar, tot dat ik het u zeggen zal ' want Herodes zal et kindeken zoeken, om hetzelfde te dooden "

14 Hy dan opgestaan zynde, nam het kindeken en zyne moeder tot zich in den nacht, en vertok naar Egypte,

15 En was aldaar tot den dood van Herodes, opdat vervuld zon worden hetgeen van den Heer gesproken is door den Profet, zeggende "ut Egypte heb ik mynen zoon geroepen "

16 Als Herodes zag, dat hy van de Wijzen bedrogen was, toen werd hy zeer toornig, en *eenigen* afgezonden hebbende, heeft hy omgebiagt al de kinderen, die binnen Beth-lehem en in al deszelfs landpalen *waren*, van twee jaeren *ouf* en daaronder, naar den tyd, dien hy van de Wijzen naastiglyk onderzocht had

17 Toen is vervuld geworden hetgeen gesproken is door den Profet Jeremia, zeggende

18 "Eanestem is in Rama gehoord, geklag, geweent en veel gekerm, Rachel bewende hare kinderen, en wilde niet vertroost wezen, omdat zy niet zyn ' "

19 Toen Herodes un gestorven was, ziet ' de Engel de Heeren verschynt Jozef in den droom, in Egypte,

20 Zeggende "sta op, neem het kindeken en zyne moeder, tot u en tiek in het land van Isiael. want zy zyn gestorven, die de ziel van het kindeken zochten "

21 Hy dan opgestaan zynde, heeft tot zich genomen het kindeken en zyne moeder, en is gekomen in het land van Isiael

22 Maar als hy hoorde, dat Archelaus in Judea Konig was, in de plaats van zynen vader Herodes, vreesde hy daerheen te gaan, mae door Goddelyke openbaring vermaand in den droom, is hy vertrokken in de deelen van Galilea

23 En *daar* gekomen zynde, nam hy zyne woonplaats in de stad, genaamd Nazareth, opdat vervuld zon worden, wat door de Profeten gezegd is, dat "hy Nazaréner zal geheeten worden "

CHAPTER XIV.

GERMAN ORIGIN, ETC —PARTS OF GERMANY, ETC —INTERNAL EVIDENCE —LANGUAGE.—THE NEW FRISIAN OF EAST FRISLAND.

§ 114. THE Frisian of East Friesland is found, at the present time, only in the fenny district named Saterland, or Sagelterland, and the island of Wangeroog.

Saterland *

1

Ihk kahn mit sette, kahn mit stoende,
Etter min Alleljowste wall ihk gounge.
Dehn wall ihk var de Finnster stoende,
Bett dett de Oolden etter Bedde gounge

2

Well stand dei var, well kloppet an,
De mi so sunnig apwaakje kahn '
Det is din Alleljowste, din
Schatz, stoend nu ap, un let mi dei in !

3

Ihk stoende mit ap, lete di du mit in,
Bett dett min Oolden etter Bedde sunt
Gounge du nu fout in den grienen Wold,
Denn mine Oolden schlepe bald.

4

Wo lange schell ihk der buten stoende ?
Ihk sjo dett Meddemoth ounkume,
Dett Meddemoth, two helle Sterne,
Bi di, Alleljowste, schlepe ihk jedden

The same, in the Platt-deutsch of Vechta †

1

Ik kann mit sitten, kann mit stahn,
Na minei Allerlefsten will ik gahn,
Dau will ik var datt Fenster stahn,
Bett datt de Oolen na Bedde gahn

2.

Well steit dar var, well kloppet an,
De mi so sunnig upwecken kann '
Datt is din Allelefstste, din
Schatz, stah nu up, un laat mi der in !

3

Ik stah nich up, late di der nich in,
Bett datt mine Oolen na'n Bedde sunt.
Gah du nu hen in den grienen Wald,
Denn mine Oolen schlaped bolle ?

* Firmenich, p. 233.

† Firmenich, p. 235.

4.

Wo lange schall ick dar buten stahn ?
 Ick see dat Morgemoth ankamen.
 Datt Morgemoth, twe helle Stein',
 By di, Alleleiste, schlope ick geien.

The same in English.

1.

I can not sit, can not stand,
 After my all-dearest will I gang,
 There will I before the window stand,
 Till that the elders after bed gang

2

Who stands there before ? who knocks (*claps*) on ?
 Who me so late upwaken can ?
 That is thy all-dearest, thy
 Treasure, stand now up and let me there in

3

I stand not up, let thee not in,
 Till that my elders after bed are,
 Gang thou now foith in the green wood,
 Then my elders sleep soon.

4.

How long shall I there without stand ?
 I see the morning-red on-come,
 The morning-red, two bight stars,
 With thee, all-dearest, sleep I willingly.

Frisian

Ihk stoende var sins Ljowstes Finnster,
 Schlepst du of waakest du ?
 Ihk schlepe nit, ihk waajke,
 Ihk lete di dei nit in,
 Ihk heir an din Ballen,
 Dett du de Rejochte nit best

Un wenn ihk dann de Rejochte nit ben,
 So tell 't mi an, din Wod ;
 Denn ihk un din Kamerad
 Wi Be, wi sunt Soldat,
 Wi gounge meden fout.

Un wenn wi meden fout gounge,
 Wett fregje wi dann etter di,
 So freeje ihk etter vers en
 Un lachje di wett ut

Trog di ben ihk huer kemen,
 In Rag'n un in Schnee,
 Kahn Wei hett mi vertrett,
 Dett ihk etter di tou gounge

Platt Deutsch.

Ick stah van sins Lefstes Fenster
 Schloppst du of waakest du ?
 Ick schlafe nich, ick waake,
 Ick late di der nich in,
 Ick hore an din Spieken,
 Datt du de Rechte nich bist

Un wenn ick dann de Rechte nich bin, .
 So seg t mi an, din Wort,
 Denn ick un din Kamerad
 Wy beyde, wy sint Soldat,
 Wi gaht morgen weg.

Un wenn wy morgen weg gaht,
 Watt frage wy dann na di,
 So freeje ick na anders eene,
 Un lache di watt iut

Dor di bin ick hier kamen
 In Reng'n un in Schnee,
 Kien Weg heff mi verdraten,
 Datt ick na di tou gah

English.

I stand before my love's (*lovest's*) window,
 Sleepest thou, or wakest thou ?
 I sleep not, I wake,
 I let you not in
 I hear by your bawling,
 That thou beest not the right one.

And what if I be not the right one ?
 So tell it me on your word,
 For I and thy comrade,
 We two, we are soldiers,
 We go to-morrow forth

And when we to-morrow forth go,
 What ask we after thee,
 I shall court somebody else
 And laugh at you

Though you be I come here,
 In rain and in snow,
 No way has stopped me,
 That I could go to you

Frisian.

Babbe, wett wollen wi daelich dwo ?
 Du kust Heede molh, ihk wall Eed faure, men du kust irst wei faure, un
 hahlje ehn Fouger Eed, un etters kuste etter Fahn gounge.
 (Die Vent fauert medden Wajehn wei)

Platt Deutsch

Pappe, watt will wy hute doon?

Du kanns Heide meihn, ick will Torf fouren, man du kanns eens weg fouren,
un hahlen een Fouger Torf, un dann kannste na'n Moore g'ihn
(De Junge fouert mit den Wagen)

English

Father, what shall we do to-day?

Thou canst mow heath, I will carry turf, but thou canst first go away, and
fetch a feed of heath, and afterwards thou canst go to the fen
(The boy goes away with the waggon)

CHAPTER XV.

GERMAN ORIGIN, ETC — PARTS OF GERMANY, ETC — INTERNAL
EVIDENCE — LANGUAGE. — THE NEW FRISIAN. — NORTH
FRISIAN OF HELIGOLAND AND THE DUCHY OF SLESWICK.

§ 115 THE North Frisian falls into two subdivisions, (1) the Frisian of Heligoland, and (2) the Frisian of the western part of Sleswick and the islands opposite.

In the parts about Husum, Bredsted, and Tondern, the Frisians of the mainland are distributed over some thirty-eight parishes; thirty-eight parishes which, along with the Islands, and Heligoland, gave, in 1852, a population of 30,000, as against 170,000 Germans, and 150,000 Danes—the whole population of Sleswick being 350,000

§ 116. Their language falls into dialects and sub-dialects. Bendsen's grammar represents the Moring form of speech, which he considers to be the purest. He notes, however, a slight difference of pronunciation between the natives of his own village Resum and the village which adjoins, Lindholm. He states, too, that in Niebull and Deezebull, the great characteristic of the North Frisian, as a modern dialect, the Dual of the personal pronoun, is wanting. Where their neighbours say,

wat=we two,

jat=ye two,

unk=us two,

junk=you two,

junken=your two,

the Niebull and Deezebull people say,

wu=we

jám=ye

uhs=us

uhsen=our

jámge=you

Other pre-eminently Friese villages are Dagebull, Fahrtoft,

Stedesand, and Enge. For all this district, *i e* for all the mainland, for the islands Hooge, Langenass, Nordmarsh, Grode, and Oland, and, for the parts about Wijk in the island of Fohr, the dialect, bating small differences like the ones alluded to, is, essentially, one. In the rest, however, of Fohr, in Sylt and in Amiom, there is not only a fresh dialect, but one which is not always readily understood on the mainland.

The displacements implied by these changes are recent. Have they been the only ones? I think not. I think that, at one time, the Frisian area may have extended as far as the northern boundary of the Duchy. The northern boundary of the Duchy of Sleswick is also there, or thereabouts, the southern boundary of the South, as opposed to the North, Jutland dialect, between which there is, at least, one important point of difference; the absence of the post-positive article, wherein the Danish agrees with the Friese. Nor is this all. The boundary was originally a forest, the remains of which are still indicated by the names Rodding (*clearance*), Oster Vedsted, Vester Vedsted, and Jernved, the old name of the forest itself having been Farris-skov, with a Farris-bæk, a Farris-holt, and a Farris-gaard, and a Fros, either within, or not far from its precincts. Further to the east the Farris-skov becomes the Gram-skov.

I think it likely that, in the *F + r* of these compounds, we have the *Fr* in *Friese*. At any rate this etymon is better than the only one I have seen elsewhere, viz: the Old Norse *hris* + the name of goddess *Frey*. A passage in Danckwert, who describes the wood as having originally stretched from sea to sea, as having been a mile (Danish) and a half in width, and as having, even in his time, cleared off to such an extent as to exist in discontinuous patches, puts any connection with the *fir*-tree out of the question. It makes it a forest of oak and beech; a wood of oak and beech, upon the mast of which numerous herds of swine were fattened.

§ 117. The most southern form of the North Frisian is the dialect of Heligoland.

The Lord's Prayer

Uus Vaadr, dear Du best un de Vergiv uus uus Skul

Hemmel!

Heilg wees Din Room,

To uus kom Din Rik,

Din Wel geschik him up de Ihr

So gud as uun de Hemmel,

Uus daglik Bruad do uus dolleng,

Us wi veigiv uus Skulmars;

En foore uus nig ihm uun Veisokmiss

Dog oloose uus van det Bisteikens,

Dan Din es det Rik en de Kragt

En de Heilichheit uun Ewigkeit,

Amen!

The Contented Helgolander

1	1
Letj' Famel, kumm ens juart tu mi'	Little woman, come * * * (?) to me'
Dî best di Bast uhp Lunn,	Thou beest the best up land,
Ick ben verleeft, hohl vall uhp Di,	I am in love, hold well up thee (<i>thank much of thee</i>),
Ick bed, du mî Dîen Hunn	I pray, do (<i>give</i>) me thine hand
2	2
Skuld Dî met mî tofieden wees,	Should'st thou with me contented be,
Es ick met Dî ook ben,	As I with thee eke be,
Wiaa ook uhs Klohr van Boy en Fiees,	Be eke (<i>even</i>) our clothes of woollen and fieze,
Wann wi tofieden sen	When we contented be.
3	3
Dann ess uhs Hemmelhick nigg fier,	Then is our Heaven not far,
Uhs Gluck haa wi uhn't Haat,	Our happiness (<i>luck</i>) had we in heart,
Haa wi keen Wien dann drink wi Bier	Have we no wine, then drink we beer,
Wi wet van keenen Smart	We wit (<i>know</i>) of no smart
4	4
Wann wi met acker koyern gung,	When we with one-another loving gang,
Wi gung uhs aya Way,	We gang our own way,
Dî Tidt waardt uss dann gar nigg lung,	The time (<i>tide</i>) is (to) us then at all not long,
So floggt uss ball dî Day	So flies us soon the day.
5	5
En kommt uhs Kostday, O' ha swett	And comes our holiday, oh' how sweet'
Gung wi dî Day uhn jun,	Go we the day through,
Wann wi uhn Fieud bi acker sett,	When we in joy by each other sit,
En hope na dî Inn.	And hope after the evening
6	6
Wi lewwe husselk dann en stell,	We live houselike (<i>home-keeping</i>) then and still,
Tofreden met uhs Stann,	Contented with our condition,
Vertenen wi dann ook nigg vall,	If we earn but little,
Wi knoje, es wi kann	We rough it as we can.
7.	7
En kommt dî Wonter, met sien Koll,	And comes the winter, with its cold,
En skell wi Jaleng haa,	And shall we fying have,
Dann kope wi bi Sacker voll,	Then buy we it by sackfulls,
Blefft van Vertienst nicks na.	There remains of our earnings nothing after
8.	8
Wi hope uhp dî Voerjuar dann,	We hope for the spring then,
Dat Fesken dann begennt,	The fishing then begins,
Wi werke dann es Wiff en Mann,	We work then as wife and man,
Uhs Fhet dann Segen wenn't.	Our industry then wins a blessing.
9	9
So lapt dî Sommer uss uhn jun,	So runs the summer out to us,
Jiar wi usz dat versu,	Before we see it,
Dî Maaren floggt so es dî Inn,	The morning flies so as the evening,
En Naagt en Day met Dî.	And night and day with thee.

10

Wat well wi muai, sen sunn en well, What will we more, we are sound and well,

En haa ja gudd uhs Binad, And have our breed (*health*) good,
Esz dan dat Gluck met usz uhn Spell, There's then our happiness,
Dann hed wi ook keen Nuad Then suffer we also no need.

10.

The Contented Heligoland Girl's Answer.

1

D1 spiackst mi uhn, ob ick mien You speak to me if I my hand
Hunn

Met Dien uhn acker lay, With thine on one another will lay,
D1 sayst, ick ben di Bast uhp Lunn, Thou sayest I am the best in the land,
En wellt mi darom frey And willest me therefore court

2

Dat ick uhp Lunn di Bast nigg ben, That I on the land the best not be,
Dat wet ick sallew well, That wot I myself well,
Dogg best di et, dat sayst mien Senn, That's what you are, so says my mind,
Wi ar ick met lewwe skell With whom I shall live.

3

Dat Jawurr kann ick di well du, The Yea-woid can I to you well make,
Wi sen ja lick van Stann, We are like in condition,
Ick teed dann utt mien Famels-Stuh, I tread now out of my maiden's shoes,
En wi wurr Wiff en Mann And we become wife and man.

4

En ha wi fider fort kohm kann, And how we henceforth further can
come,
Dat mutt di Tokunft har, That must the future learn,
Dat esz Dien Plicht ja dann es Mann, That is your business as husband,
Wann wi tu acker hiar. When we to one another belong.

5

Verienst Di wat, dann hohl ick dat If you earn anything, I keep it
Es Huszwiff dann tu Raath, As housewife for housekeeping,
Dayst D1 dat nigg, wi kohm tu sploet If you do nothing, we come soon
Uhn Nadel ook en Traht. To needle eke and thread.

6

Dogg hope ick, D1 dayst Dien Bast, Yet hope I that you'll do your best,
En haltst mi surrigfrey, And hold me free from sorrow,
Haa wi dann 'n Betjen uhn di Kast, If we have then a bit tuck in the chest,
Dann kann wi ruhig lay Then can we sleep quiet.

7

So slutt wi dann met Mutt en Hart, So conclude we then with mouth and
heart,
Usz Treu bet tu di Duad, Our truth e'en to the death,
O' mocht wi dann frey blief van Oh' may we then be free from smart
Smart
En wenn dat Gluck uhn Skuat ' And win (*luck*) happiness in the
bosom '

From the island Sylt the specimens are both more numerous

and more important; inasmuch as a body of poems has been composed in it by Hansen.

THE OLD BACHELOR !

*Dialect of Sylt.**In English.*

1

1.

Knap weji ick ut nun Jungens Skuur,
Knap Dausent weken ual,
Da kam dat Friin al on min Sen,
En Bid fuar mi weji Nummer Jen,
Aik In da lop ik hur en dejn,
Hur en Junglaanen wejr

Searce was I out of my youth's shoes,
Searce a dozen weeks old,
Then came courting in my mind,
A bride for me was Number One,
Each evening ran I here and there,
Wherever a young woman was

2

2

Val feng ick uk dat Ja fan Jen,
Man min Moodter wildt ek lud,
Ju secd "Min Seen, fortune jest wat,
Din arwdeel maaket di kwal ek fat,
Wu sen jit di jest fjunttem Jaar
Ek tunet me en Snaai "

Well got I eke a Yes from one,
But my mother would not bear it,
She said, "My son, earn something,
Thy heritage makes not the cob fat,
We are yet just fourteen years,
Not served by a daughter-in-law "

3

3

Sok Wuuder hed ik ek hol' jeid,
Man wat wejr jir to don?
Utfan to See will 'k my da uw,
En ijuuntem Jaar fan Hus affluw,

Such words had I not willingly heard,
But what was here to do?
Go out to sea will I,
And fourteen years from house stay
away

To beek is toamol nu di Tid,
En ik ha jit nun Bid

Back, is twice now the time,
And I have yet no bride

Paraphrase of the Pater noster.

1

Gott, uus Faader ! hoog best Du
On de Hemmel aur Din Jungen !
Help uus ! Im uus sa, dat wu
Wellg sen, de Wei to gungen,
Dat Din Room uus hellig es,
En Din Rik uus ek geid' mes

Let uus Gnaade bi Di haale,
Help, dat wu icht kristelk luw,
En uis Skiljneis uk fornw

2

4

Let Din Wel uk sa fan uus
Utfoord uud, us fan de Seelen,
Diar bi Di al sen Ithuus
Sorge fuar uus Leewends Deelen,
Diar forgung, me daaglikis Bruad,
Let uus fin fan Hungeis Nuad.

Skuld en Kemmer of en Lek
Uus wat fuul to dielen maake,
Gott ! da sorge, dat wu ek
Unhuur uud, of gaar Di wraake.
Haa uus Daagen jir jaai Sum,
Da let uus on Hemmel kum

3

5

Wu sen Send'eis, nemmen kjen
Sin gutt Skilj on Di bitaale
Faader, aa' fornw ark Send',

Din es Hoogheid, Din es Maght !
Du heest alles aur to reeden !
Din es Wisheid ! Fol Bedaght,
Weest Du alles baast to reeden !
Din es Gudheid ! diarom do,
Faader, jir Din Aamen to !

*North Frisian of the Mainland **

Dat hew ick de denn no aw Fraask vorthelt, for dat do hahl ihsen Stedson-
ninger Fraask here waast De ulle Dankwert schall sehde, dat bei Oxlef dat

* From Allen's *Danske Sprogs Historie i Hertugdømmet Slesvig*, vol. II p 751.

beest Fransk snaket word Dat mei vlicht to sin Tid nichtig ween wese, as dat Fraslom nog so grott wos dat Oxlef sowatt ma om tai Dat es no ois den dat Tjosk namont hei altns Oweihoind, en so kan dat Fransk ai in blive Ick tonk me, dat dat beest Fransk no to Tids bei'e Bottendik, bei Daagebull, oder vlicht a'we Hallige snaket waid Von Farringer en'e Seltinger wall ick gaar ai snake, de kon hum je gaai ai veistonne wenn hum me jem snake wall

In English

This is what I have told you about the Frisian, at that time when all the Stedesonnik people here were Frisian The old Dankwert shall have said the best Frisian was spoken at Oxlef That may, perhaps, have been the case in his time, when Friesland was so great that Oxlef lay within it This is now otherwise, for the German has got the upper hand, and so the Frisian cannot remain pure I think that the best Frisian, now-a-days, is spoken at Bottendik, or at Daagebull, or, perhaps, on some of the small islands (Hallige) Of the people of Fohr and Sylt I will not speak, for I cannot understand them when they will talk with me

PSALM CXXXIX *

- 1 Hiere, do forshest me utt, an kã mst me
- 2 Ick sãtt untig stajun ap, so wiest do't. do foistonest min togte fõn fienense
- 3 Ick gong untig lãdd. so bast doãm me, an sjogst ãll min wege
- 4 Dãnn sieh, dũn ãs nijn urd aw mãn tung, wat do Hiere, ai ã'les wiest
- 5 Do shãfest't, wãt ick faai untig heieften duhg, an halst dũn haujnn auwer me
- 6 Dãt tó forstaunnen as me ãltó wunnerbaur, an ãltó huch, ick kõn't a begippe
- 7 Wur shãll ick hanegonge faar dãn Geist? an wur shãll ick hanefljin faar dũn ãllass?
- 8 Faur ick ãpaujn'e Hãm met, so bãst do durr, mãget ik min Bẽdd aujn'e 'e Hẽlle, lauck, so bãst dõ oik durr
- 9 Num ick'e Mjãns Winge, an blief bã't utterst Heef,
- 10 So wurd doch dũn Haujnn ine durr faue, an dũn rõgt Haujnn me hujlle
- 11 Sãhs ick. de Junke mai me foibaurge, so maujt'e Nãgt ock Ljãgt ãm me wẽse
- 12 Dann ock de Junke ãs ãi junk bãi de, an'e Nãgt ljõgtet ãs'e Dai, Junkhaud ãs ãlk ãs't Ljãgt
- 13 Dãnn do hahst min Njuike aujn dũn Mãgt, do wjãrst auwer me aujn min Moddeis Liff
- 14 Ick tõnk de durrfaar, dãt ick wunnerbaarlick mãget bãn, wunnerbaar san dũn Wanke, an dãt eikãmt min Siel wajl
- 15 Min Lãhse wjãrn ãi foistagen faar de, ãs ick aujn Forburgenhaud mãget wurd, ãs ick shahm wurd dẽle unner't Jãid
- 16 Dũn Ugene sãchen me, ãs ick noch unberẽset wãs, an ãlle Dẽge wjãrn aujn dũn Bauck shrãwen, dũr noch wuude shaujn an ãs'r noch nũn awf kiemen wãs
- 17 Aurs horr kostlick sãn, o Gõld, dũn Tõgte faar me? Hõcken grotten Some sãn's ãi?

* From Bendtsen, *Die Nordfriesische Sprache*, p. 450

18 Shaujl ick's tölle, so wurden's moir wêse, as Sôaskjâle. Wânn ick wickne word, bân ick noch bai de

19 Ach Gôdd, dât do dâ Gôddhuse ambringe mâtst, an da Blauydgungge fon me wicke mōsten

20 Dann ja snâke lasterlick an de, an din Fjnde hawe jam aane Uisâge

21 Ick hâhs jâ, Hiere, dâ, dui de hâhse, an dât fortrott me âw jam, dât's jam apyn de sette

22 Ick hâhs jam rôgt faa Alwea „duifaar san's wiess âw me

23 Rôasâg me, o Gôld, an erfâr min Hât, prâw me, an erfâr horrdamg ick't mien

24 An lanck, wui ick aw on anigen Wai ban, an lydd me âw de ewige Wai

Isaiah xlix 15

Ick wâll de âi forlajite noch foisome As 't moglick, dât en Modder harr Bjâm forjêhse kôn, cât's hâr ai auwer hâiren Sahn erbâime shaujl? An wânn 's hâim ock forjêhse kohs, so wall ick doch de ai forjêhse

Jeremiah viii. 7-11

En Stauk unner'e Hâmmel wyjt sîn Tidd, en Turteldow, en Krânik an en Swilken mâike jare Tidd, wânn's wihsse kâme shân, aurs min Faylk wâhshen Hieres Rôgt âi wâhse Hoir maage'm doch sêdde We wâhse, wâ-rôgt as, an hawe jo hellig Shuâft faa uss? San 't doch luter Lagne, wât da Shuâttheide sette! Dann wât kaane's Gaujds liere, fâwânn's uhsen Hieres Uid foismôie? Dânn ja gitse âltemâle, biese lajt an grott, an biese Priêstie an Prophete here en fâhsen Gôldstjnst, an tûste min Faylk ayn jâie Unlock, dât's't hyn âgte shân, an sêdde Fiêhse! Fiêhse! an dui âs doch nân Fiêhse

Habakkuk ii 4

Sieh! de, dui hâsstâirig âs, he wort nyn Rô ayn sîn Hât hêwen, aurs de Rogtfjardige lawet bai sân Luwe

Jesus, Son of Sdach, xiii 4-11

De Rucke dêt Umôgt an tiotset noch duitô, aus de Eime maujt lihsse an'r tô tönke. So long âs do hân njuttig bâst, bruckt'i de, aus wânn do âi moir kaast, so lêtr de fâie Willent do wât hahst, so tjâit'i mâ de, an dât kummeit hân nunt, dât do foirderebst Wânn de nohssig hêt, kôn'r de fien gêcke, an smêlet ajt de, lôwet de faale, dêt de dâ bêste Urde an sait Hahst wât nohssig? an lâsigt de nusen untig tâie tô Gâst bediêglick, dât'r de âm dât Din brângt, an tôlêst auwer de spôtet An wânn'r din Nujd ock sjôgt, lêtr de doch fâie, an shuddet dât Haad auwer de Duifaar sie tô, dât din Ijnfujghaud de âi bediêgt an ayn unlock brângt.

Jesus, Son of Sdach, xx 4.

Huhm Gewalt ôwet ayn't Rôgt, he as âllickso as en Hôfmaister, durr en Jumfer shânt, dui'i bewâie shaujl.

Jesus, Son of Sdach, xxi 9

De, durr sîn Huss baggd mâ auser Faylkens Gaujd, he sômmelt Stiene tô sîn Greef

Jesus, Son of Sdach, xxxv 3

Fon Sênne lajtten, dât âs de iôgte Gôldstjnst, dui uhsen Hiere behâget a an âphuyllen Unrogt tô duhggen, dât âs en iôgt Foismungings-ôfer.

1 *John* i 8, 9

Horr we sêdde, we hawe nân Senne, so toifane we uss sêllew, an' e Wjard
 âs ai ayn uss. Aus hoir we uhs Senne bekânne, so as Gôld tau an iogt-
 ôidag dat'r uss da Senne tojeft, an niemgt uss fon âll Undoged

Revelation iii 11

Hujll, wat do hahst, dat memnen din Krohn nâmt, dânn ick kâm
 ball

Leviticus xix 11-13

Jâm shân âi stêle, noch ljaage, untig fâlsh hondle, de Ihne mâ de Auseie. Do
 shaht ai fâlsh swêie an Gôds' Nôme wônhillge, do shaht dan Naiste myn
 Umogt dujn, noch ham beruwe. De Dailynnei shaht sin Lujn ai tobalig
 hujlle to am Mjâinem

Numbers vi 24-26*Uhsen Hiere's Sagen*

Uhsen Hiere sagen de an bewâr de, uhsen Hiere lajt sín Ônlâss ljôgte
 auwei de, an wêhs de gnâhsig, de Hiere left sin Ônlâss auwei de, an jow de
 Fichse

Deuteronomy xvi 18-20

Rôgtiere an Âmtmänn shaht de sette, dat's dat Fauylk iogte ma en iogtjardig
 Rôgt. Do shaht dat Rogt ai biee, an myn Person aynusyn, untig Gaawe nane,
 dann Fonhunge mäge da Wihsse blinn, an foikere da Rogtjardiges Sâge.
 Wat iogt âs, dui shaht ofter jôge, dat do lave mahst

Deuteronomy xix 18-21

An dâ Rogtere shan wajl ôfterfoishe. An wann de fâlsh Tjoge en fâlsh
 Tjogniss yn sâs Bjauser auffaid hêt, so shan'm ham dujn, âs he san Bjauser
 to duhggen tôgt, dat do de Fole fon de wagdahst, dat dâ auseie dat hiere, an
 ai moir sock aing Stoge faainame to duhggen unner de. Din Uhg shall hân
 âi shunige. Siel am Siel, Uhg am Uhg, Taus am Taas, Hauynn am Hauynn,
 Faujtt am Faujtt

Psalms xix 2

De ihne Dai saut't de ausere, an jo ihn Nâgt mâget't jo auser bekânnd

Psalms xc 10

Uhs Lawent wâret sowentig Ihi, an wann't huch kâmt, so sânt't tachentig
 Ihi, an wann't kostlick wahn hêt, so hêt't Maute an Âibed wahn, dann dat
 fart hâstig hane, âs fluchen we durion.

Psalms cxxvi 5, 6

Dâ, durr mâ Ture sâie, woide ma Fiaude banigen. Ja gunge hane an gâlle
 na diêge adel Sajd, an kame ma Fiaude, an bunge jâie Hôcke.

2 *The North Frisian Language.*

Horiwajl uhsen noirdiâshe Sprâjke âi so undrick âs, âs de huchtjushe an
 auser moir uttbillet Sprâjke, so hêt'i doch Uttdrucke an Wynninge nôg, am
 auseie sin Tôgte dothek mâtodhielen, wann'm's mân to brucken an iôgt ayn-
 wyinnen forstônt. Dât aurs en Tung, dui hân oller tó Shráftsprâjke hawet
 het, Brâk faar sóck Uide hewe maugt, dui auwetsânnlick Ijnstânde an
 Begrippe betekne, âs lâgt intôseen. Hai'r en uttbât Shráft-an Baukewasen
 hajd an fautsêt, so wurd r' ock nôg Shredd hullen hêwe mâ auser uttbillet
 Sprâjke, as ma de dânshe, tjushe, hollauyshe an ayngeleshe, durr no âltemâle
 faale undrickere san.

In English

Although our North Frisian speech is not so word-rich as the High Dutch and other more developed languages, so has it, nevertheless, expressions and windings (turns) enough, one's thought clearly to communicate to others, when one understands how to use and apply it rightly. That otherwise a tongue, which has not raised itself to a written language, must have a want of such words as betoken super-sensual objects and conceptions is light to see. Had it possessed and continued, a wide-spread and written book-matter, so would it have had a progress like more-developed languages, as the Danish, the German, the Hollandish, which are now, altogether, much word-richer.

"I hear thee speak of a better land"

1

Do snäkest so öfting fon't bahseie Laujnn,
An saust, dät Äiken äs lockheek dü ayn,
Dür kön ja memmen Sënne mon düjn,
An wät koln't biese so gaujd oek dü fiyn
Äs't dürr, wur'e Sänn beständig män shint,
Wur't oller hagelt an snät untig rinnt?
Äi düi, äi düi, min Björn!

2

Äs't düi, wur de fahsiede Pälmbuhm grät,
An Männäbuud auwer't hiel Fajl sprät läit,
Untag madde dä Lauynne ayn't spagelnd Heef,
Wur Rause äpwägse äw äikens Gieef,
An sälten Fögle mä dät stjuhlgst Blän
Bräjdde, an sjunge an dhe ambän?
Äi düi, äi düi, min Björn!

3

Äs't widd töbahg ayn en Tidd so fier,
Wur öllei memmen en Läss düi siei?
Wur'e Demant shind ayn'e junkest Nägt,
An ma dä Rubme forihned sin Ljägt,
Wur Paile gläme äw de korallne Staayn
Äs't düi, hew Mudder, dät bahseie Lauynn?
Äi düi, äi düi, min Björn!

4

Nyn Uhg hêt't sajn, män hewe Düng,
Nyn Uhi herd de frauheke Jubelshwing,
Nän Druhm mälet de so smuck en Wiäll,
Dür äs nän Duhss nyn Kuuss auweräll,
Dür öhmet nyn Tidd äw dät ewig Heef,
Dänn bärjante dä Stane an jantégge't Gieef,
Düi äs't, düi äs't, min Björn!

The English Original

1.

I hear thee speak of a better land,
Thou call'st its children a happy band,
Mother, oh! where is that radiant shore?
Shall we not seek it, and weep no more?

Is it where the flower of the orange blows,
And the fire-flies dance in the myrtle boughs ?
Not there, not there, my child !

2

Is it where the feathery palm-trees rise,
And the date grows ripe under sunny skies ?
O! midst the green islands of glittering seas,
Where fragrant forests perfume the breeze,
And strange bright birds on their starry wings
Bear the rich hues of all glorious things ?
Not there, not there, my child !

3

Is it far away in some region old,
Where the rivers wander o'er sands of gold,
And the burning rays of the ruby shine,
And the diamond lights up the secret mine,
And the pearl gleams forth from the coral strand ?
Is it there, sweet mother, that better land ?
Not there, not there, my child !

4

Eye hath not seen it, my gentle boy
Ear hath not heard its deep songs of joy !
Dreams cannot picture a world so fair !
Sorrow and death may not enter there,
Time may not breathe on its faultless bloom,
Far beyond the clouds and beyond the tomb
It is there, it is there, my child !

The following is from Camerer, and, next to the short sample by which it is followed, and a few others, it is the oldest specimen of North Frisian.

Song for a Wedding.

1

We sen hjir to en bullep,
Hjir mut we uk wat sjung,
Up sok gudt feuegeddaogen,
Da mut et lustig gung
Hoera ! Hoera ! Hoera !
Da mut et lustig gung

2

Bi 't sjungen hjeid to drinken,
Aik heed bud' slunk en smaok,
En hjir es wat djer keulked !
Dit es en foarskel saok
Hoera ! enz

3

We nem da bi uos glæsen,
En leet uos hol' gefaol
Rogt dugtig iens to drinken
Uos Brid en Bridmans skaol
Hoera ! enz.

1.

We are here to a wedding,
Here must we eke somewhat sing,
Upon such a made (*gaat*) holiday,
There must it merry go
Hurrah ! hurrah ! hurrah !
There must it merry go

2.

By singing belongs drinking,
Each head becomes sleek and smug,
In here is what
This is a capital affair.
Hurrah, &c.

3

We nim (*take*) then by our glasses,
And let us heartily
Right well at once drink
Our bride and bridegroom's health
Hurrah, &c

In 1452, the following inscription was found on a font at Busum.

The Original

Disse himen dōpe de have wi thou ewigen onthonken mage lete, da schollen osse beinne in kressent wude

Translation by Clemens into the present Frisian of Amrum

Thas hur dip di ha wi tun ewagen unthonken mage leat, thea skell us hanner un kressent wud

English

This here dip have we as an everlasting remembrance let make, there shall our banns in christened be

The Wooer from Holstein

Dia! Kam en skep bi Sudher Sjo	There came a ship by the South Sea,
Me, tū jung fūcis on di flot	With thice young wooers on the flood,
Hokken wai di foideorst?	Who was the first?
Dit wai Peter Rothgum	That was Peter Rothgum
Hud saut hi sih spoonen?	Where set he his tracks?
Fuar Hennerk Jeiken's duu?	For Hennerk Jeiken's door
Hokken kam to duur?	Who came to door?
Marike sallef	Mary-kim herself,
Me kruk en bekker on di jen hundh,	Clock and beaker in one hand,
En gulde ring am di udher hundh	A gold ring on the other hand
Ju noodhught hom en sm hinghist in,	She pressed him and his horse in
Dod di hingst haaver and Peter wun	Gave the horse oats and Peter wine.
Toonkh Gott fuai des gud dei	Thank God for this good day!
Al di brid end bridmaaner of wei,	All brides and bridesmen out of way!
Butolte Mari en Peter alluning!	Except Mary and Peter alone
Ju look hom un to kest	She locked him up in her box,
En wildh hom nimmer muai mest	And never would miss him more

*Frisian **

En Faamel oon Eidum hær hei foilaavet, med en jungen Moan, en hem taasværet, dat's ier taa en Stun voide vil, es en voide en oern Moans Vof. Du junge Moan foileet hem æv her Tiauhæid, en ging taa Sæie. Man sin Faamel foigæt hem bal, en nom moit oere Freiere em Nagtem, en forlaavet hei taalast med en Stagter foan Keitum. De Biellupsdæi vord bestemt, en de Tog ordnet hem med sen Formoan foæt, æve Væi foan Eidum taa Keitum. Dei kommens oneivogens en ul Vof oontmoit, en det es en hun Fortiken for en Bræid. Man ju sæ "Eidumbonne, Keitumbonne, jeunge Bræid es en Hex." Æergeihk en foibittet svaat de Formoan "Es yys Bræid en Hex, denn vil ik, det vi hei altaamoal dealsunken, en vydder epvaxten es græ Stune." Es hu even de Uurde sæid hær, saank det hule Selskab med Bræid en Biedgom deal oone Gynn, ex vaxet vydder hulv ep es græ Stune. For ei menning Ju heves hjem nog visset es grot Stune, tveer en tveer æve Sid bei enoer med de Formoan oone Spesse. Je ston taa 'd Norden foan Tinnum, ei vid foant ul Thinghuged, en taa en Eimnering em jo Beigevenhæid vorn æve sid bei det Hugged tau lait tinn Huge epsmenn, der's Bræidefartshuge namden.

* From Allen, *Det Danske Sprogs Historie i Hentugdommet Slesvig, eller Synderjylland*.

The same in the Danish of the district

En Pig i Eidum h j f rl v t s  m  en ong Kael aa svoren aa, te hun fei i skuld blyv te Steen, end hun skuld, blyv en A'ens Kuen Den ongg Kael t j no godt aa hind aa di v tilsoes Men de vai int l ngg inden   Pig' f rl mt ham aa tovv om Nat  mor andei Frieres Bes g aa f rl v t s  tesist m  en Slavter fia Keitum   Davv, te   Bi llop skuld staae, vaar bestemt, aa   Br yskai saat s  i Gaang fra Eidum, te Keitum m    Anfoiei i   Spids Saa kom de da undevej  moi en gammel Kuen aa de bet ei int norvei Godt for en Br j Men hun ojt aa so "Eidumbyndei, Keitumbyndei, J  Br j  'en Hex'" No bl v   Anfoiei  gele aa gall i   H j aa svar aa so "Ja hvinner voi Br j vaai en Hex, saa vild   onnsk, te vi Oli saank i   J id aa groj Oli hall op  ggen som graae Steen" Alleisaasnai h j han saaj di Oid, inden   heel Selskob m  samt   Br j aa   Bi gom saank neei i   J id aa gr p hall op  ggen som graae Steen Enno f i int manne Aai sin vidst di aa vis di fein st i Steen, to oia to ve   Si a  naen m    Anfoiei i   Spids Di stod Noien f i Tinnum, int laant fia den gammel Thingp ld, aa f i aa hovs hva de sk  de Gaang, vaa der ve   Si a   Hy opsm dt to smaa B jeie sum di kaaldt   *Br yskaihy*

Literary Danish

En Pige i Eidum havde f rl vet sig med en ung Karl og sv ren paa, at hun f i skulde bl ve til Steen, end hun skulde bl ve en Andens K ne Den unge Karl t ede nu godt paa hende og d g tilsoes Men det v ede ikke l nge, inden Pigen f rl mte ham og t g om Natten imod andei Frieres Bes g og f rl vede sig tilsidst med en Sl gtei fia Keitum Dagen, da Br yllupet skulde staae, vai bestemt, og Brudeskaren satte sig i Gang fra Eidum til Keitum med Anfoieren i Spidsen Saa kom de da undeveis im de med en gammel K ne og det bet dei ikke noget Godt f i en Br d Men hun vaabte og sagde "Eidumb ndei, Keitumb ndei, j  Br d ei en Hex'" Nu blev Anfoieren  gerlig og gal i Hovedet og sv i og sagde "Ja hvis vor Br d var en Hex, saa vilde jeg  nske, at vi Alle sank i J iden og groede halvt op igjen som graae Steen" Aldrigsaasnai havde han sagt de Oid, inden det hele Selskab med samt Br den og Br dgommen sank ned i J iden og groede halvt op igjen som graae Steen Endnu f i ikke mange Aar siden vidste de at vise de fem store Steen, to og to ved Siden af hinanden med Anfoieren i Spidsen De stode Norden f i Tinum, ikke langt fia den gamle Thingp ld, og f i at huske, hvad der skeede den Gang, vai der ved Siden af H jen opkastet to smaa B jeie, som de kaldte *Br dsk rh ene*

In English

A maiden in Eidum was engaged to a young man, and had sworn that she should be turned to stone before she should become anybody else's wife The young man believed her, and went to sea But it was not long before the maiden forgot him, and received by night another lover's visits, and engaged herself at last with a butcher from Keitum The day on which the wedding should take place was fixed, and the bridal procession started from Eidum to Keitum, with its leader in front They met on their way with an old woman—and that betokens no good for a bride And she cried out, "Eidum people! Keitum people!—your bride is a witch!" Then the leader grew angry, and mad in her head, and answered and said, "Aye, if our bride is a witch, I wish we may sink in the earth, and all grow up again like grey stones!" As soon as she had said the words, the whole company, along with the bride and bridegroom, sank in the earth, and grew half up again as grey stones And now, till

within a few years ago, one could see five great stones, two and two on each side, and the leader in front. They stood north of Tinnum, not far from the old Thungfold, and, in order to remember what happened at that time, there was thrown up, by the side of the mound, two small hills, which they called *Bru-deskarehoien*.

Frisian

Ik mei di,
Wel di haa!
Meist du mi?
Skedt me faa.
Weidt du ek?
Feist mi dagh!
Med on Week
Haa wat Lagh.
Man kjenst su
Wat ik jyt?
Da best fuu,
Best mi quit
Delling skell ik briuu,
Miaren skel ik baak,
Aummiaren wel ik Briollep maak

Danish

Ieg elsker Dig,
Vil Dig have!
Elsker Du mig?
Skal Du mig faa
Vil du ikke?
Fæst mig dog!
Midt i Ugen
Have roit Jag
Men can Du sige
Hvad jeg hedder?
Da ei Du fuu,
Ei mig qvit
Idag skal jeg bygge.
Imoigen skal jeg bage,
Overmoigen vil jeg Bryllup holde

In English

I like you,
Will have thee!
Lakest thou me?
Shalt me have
Wilt thou not?
Fix me day!
Mid in week,
Have our law
But kennest thou,
What I hight?
Then beest free
Beest me quit
To-day shall I brew,
To-morrow shall bake,
Day-after-to-morrow will I bridal make

This seems to belong to the well-known nursery tale of Rumpelstiltsken. There is, however, no prose context.

CHAPTER XVI.

GERMAN ORIGIN, ETC.—INTERNAL EVIDENCE.—ANGLO-SAXON, OR OLD SAXON, ELEMENTS IN THE EXISTING DIALECTS OF NORTHERN GERMANY.

§ 118. SUCH are the chief details of the Old Saxon, and the Frisian, the two forms of speech with which the language of

the Angles, or the Anglo-Saxon as it was spoken in Germany, was most especially connected. It was akin to the German languages in general. However, to the two dialects in question, it was more closely allied than to any others. The difference in their external history has, no doubt, already presented itself to the reader. The Frisian, though preserved in fragments only, is still preserved to the present day. The Old Saxon, on the other hand, is extinct. Throughout the whole length and breadth of its original area, it is left without any clear and definite representative.

The present dialects of Hanover and Holstein, are other than Angle in origin, and, in like manner, the present dialects of Westphalia are other than Old Saxon. This means that the modern Westphalian is not lineally descended from the ancient. On the contrary, it has been introduced from elsewhere; has encroached upon the Saxon, has displaced and superseded it.

§ 119 The remote ancestors of those Westphalians who, at the present time, speak a Platt-Deutsch dialect, spoke *Old Saxon*. The remote ancestors of those Hanoverians who do the same, spoke *Anglo-Saxon*. How far has the adoption of the present form of speech been imperfect, or (changing the expression), how far do traces of the older language show themselves through the newer? Have any of the dialects, or sub-dialects, of Westphalia and Hanover Saxon characteristics?

The answer is anything but plain. It is easy enough to find sounds, words, and inflections which are common to the present dialects of Westphalia, Hanover, or Holstein, and those of Great Britain; easy, too, to find certain Anglo-Saxon and Old Saxon forms which, though non-existing in the present English, are anything but uncommon in the provincial parts of Germany. This, however, is not enough. In order to make them Angle, or Old Saxon, they must be shown to be strange to all the other divisions and sub-divisions of the German tongue. and, even then, the evidence, though satisfactory, can scarcely be considered as conclusive; inasmuch as the forms in question may have had an independent origin—possibly one subsequent to the times of the Angle invasions.

§ 120. As opposed to the ordinary High German of literature, the dialects of Westphalia, &c., say *he* for *er*, *wi* for *wir*, *it* for *es*, and the like. The Dutch of Holland, however does the same, and so do many of the common Platt-Deutsch dialects of the Rhine.

§ 121 Of the following specimens, the first two are from the parts which have supplied us with the most definite examples of the Old Saxon—the parts about Frekkenhorst, Warendorf, and Essen. the third being from the valley of the Lower Diemel, where the Saxon and Frank areas met.

(1)

*From the neighbourhood of Frekkenhorst**Wu Jans Schölkamp Nachdens ioever 'ne Bjeke quamm*

1

"Larw' Haar, larw' Haai, so blitz' doch as!"
 Jans Schölkamp was ut 't Waatslus kjuemen,
 Wô he all' Nacht satt bas telasz
 He haire Djoaist fjoai finf of sasz,
 Auk woll en Halfken te vjiel sik njuemen.

2

Woll quamm he up 'en rechten Patt,
 Et blitzt' un gummeld, de Wind de huulde,
 De Rjeejen gaut, de Wag was glatt,
 Wu fâken stjoane Jans up't Gatt!
 He grabblde sik wjer up un muulde,

3

Un soch met Hanne, Foot' un Stok
 Djoer Bjeke, Hjeegen, Busk' un Blâken
 Den nicht'sten Patt, dat nachte Lok
 So quamm he gluklik bas an'n Hôk,
 Wô ioever d' Bjeke laigen Stâken

4

Daip was he Bjeck', dat Schemm was schmôl
 Dô fjoai em 't Gruggeln djoai de Bollen
 "Larw' Haai, larw' Haai, oh blitz' nô 'n Môl!"
 O locht' mi as met n Wjeerlochtstol!"
 Larw' Haar de dai 't em te Gefollen

5.

De gânze Lucht start nu in Glôt
 Jans suuht 'et Schemm dieht fjoai stik liggen,
 Will just d'up setten sunen Fôt
 Dô wat 't pakduuster —Fjoai Ummôt
 Fânk h' an te grunen un te spiggen

6

He rjeipt up t' Gatt nô 't Oôever hen
 "Larw' Haar, nô 'n Môl!"—De lot sik bidden.
 Gau grabbelt Jans met Foot' un Hann',
 Van 't Schemmken grip he 't êne Enn',
 Un rjeipet ioever de Bjeck' bestidden

*English**How John Schiökamp, at night, got over the beck*

1

"Dear Lord, dear Lord! how it lightens!"
 Jack Schiökamp was come from the inn
 Where he all night sat the last,
 He had thurst for five or six,
 But he would take a half-glass too much

2

Well came he up the right path
 It lightened and thundered, the wind did howl,
 The rain gushed, the way was slippery.
 How often fell Jack on his back side!
 He scrambled up again, and growled,

3

And sought with hands, foot, and stick,
 Through reek, bush and brake,
 The rightest path, the right gap
 So came he luckily to the yard
 Where over the beck lay stakes

4

Deep was the beck the bridge was narrow
 Flight went over him through the . . .
 "Dear God, dear God! lighten once more!"
 Oh, light me with a lightning-flash!"
 The dear God did as he wanted

5

The whole left stands now in a glow
 Jack saw the bridge before him lay,
 Will just there up set his foot,
 Then was it pitch dark For fear
 He began to grin and to spit

6

He crept backwards to the bank,
 "Dear God! once more" The prayer was heard
 Quick grabs Jack with foot and hands,
 Of the bridge he gupes the one end,
 And gets over the beck cock-horse

(2)

*From Warendorf**De Nachtygall un de Blünneislange.*

Et was emol 'ne nachtygall un 'ne blünneislange, de hadden beide men en auge, un hāweden tehaupe in en hus lange tied in iraden un veidiag Emoles woere de nachtygall nā en fiōnd te gaste biæt, un se siā to de blünneislange: "Ik sinn dā to gaste biæt, un mag mi met én auge dā nich gaern saien lāten,

si doch so guet un lene mi 't dme dâton, ik bieng et di jâ muâren wier " Un de blunnerslange daet ut gafallikeit —Aber an den amern dag dâ de nachtigall nâ hus quamm, geföll't ier so guet, dat se twee augen minen koppe hadde un dat se nâ beiden sien liken koun, dat se de aime blunnerslange dat len'de ange meh wier giewen woll Dâ sade de blunnerslange, se woll se appat wol wier kiugen. "Gâ men," sade de nachtigall, "un sok mâl"

"Ik haue min nest op duese linne,
So hange, so hange, so hange,
Dâ west du't din hawe nit sinnen"

Sié de tied hârwed âlle nachtigallen twee augen, un âlle blunnerslangen kiénne augen Aber wo de nachtigall ier nest baut, dâ wuonet sige in den busk 'ne blunnerslange, un se sogg alltied derup te kriepen un wall nârn figgend lócker in de aeri buoren un se utsupen

English

The Nightingale and the Blindworm

Once upon a time, the nightingale and the blindworm had each but one eye apiece, and they lived together in one house for a long while in peace and concord. At last, the nightingale was invited to a feast by a friend. She said to the blindworm, "I am invited to a feast, and I don't like to go with one eye, be so good and lend me yours, and I will bring it you back in the morning," and the blindworm did so out of politeness. The next day, when the nightingale came home, she was so pleased at having two eyes in her head, and being able to see on both sides, that she would not give back to the poor blindworm the borrowed eye. Then the blindworm said he would get it back again. "Try," said the nightingale,—

"I have my nest on the linden-tree,
So high, so high, so high,
You will not find it"

Since that time all nightingales have had two eyes, and all blindworms none. But when the nightingales build their nest, a blindworm lives in the bush, and it always strives to climb up and bore a hole in its enemy's eggs and suck them

(3)

From the Valley of the Diemel

Süss wass de Stadt Giesmer viel grötter osse jetzunder. Da hiet se enmal enen Krieg chat med viellen Heren, de wollen se útbrennen. Se kemen mied énnen Luen un nammen de gantze Feldmark in, un hechten sick von Dâre, de tô emacht woen, un uemme de Mûre, un leten nemes út noch in. Se hadden auk de Rogge van der Wiede elanget, un de Swine hadden se wieg edriewwen, un âlles Veh, dat vórr den Heren geit. Dat gantze Feld hadden se afemâggett, un steggeden de Frucht med den Gülen. Un est wóren se lawisch. Se slachteten dat Veh, un wollen nix angeres éten, osse Fleesch, un Smalt, un Woiste, un Braen, un Zalât darb. Awer osse âlles vertérd wass, de hadden, de viellen Lue vórr der Stadt nix men to étene. Nu wasset in der Stadt awer auk nie bietter. Se mássden dünne Hunger hen, un wussden nie meir, wovan lewwen solden. Da wass menker, de die Kohdele ehat hadde, un hadde nu kien enigzes men. Den Supen mássden se dünne kâlen, un Fleesch hadden se gar nie meir.

Da siet se van beiden Parthuggen eens eworen, se wollen twe Mann, enen út

dem, Lager, den angeien út der Stadt, mied enanger woerpeln laten, un seen we den hoigesten Wuorp diedde De Wuorpelei útem Lager smiet siewwen-teine Da knechde de, denn se út der Stadt eschicked hadden, en grauten Schreckten He verfahr siek, un dachde 1ee, 1et woe alles veilären Aver smieten müssde he doch auk, un smiet—achteine! Un da lacheden de Buor-ger van Geismer de grauten Hense út, darumme, dat de Dickedoers müssden inager afgahn, un laten de Stadt mied Friedden Dem Buorger awer, de so gad woerpeln konnde, had se in der Stadt en Teken esat up den Thären, by dem he eworpelet hadde Se had die graute Stene utehägget, osse de Wuor-pel siet, un had se ehlegt up de ungeiste Muie vannen Thären, un darup siet ewiest to seene achten Augen De allen Luu, de nau hewwet, had den Thä-ien un de Wuorpele, de darup woen, nau eseen, un daavan hied de Thären eheiten *De Wuorpelthären*

English

Once, the town Geismer was much greater than it is now Then, upon a time, they had a war amongst many of the herdsmen who wanted to burn it down They came with their people, and took possession of the whole com-mon, and laid themselves before the gates, which were put to, and about the walls, and let no one either out or in They had also got the cows out of the meadow, and the swine they had driven away, and all the cattle that goes before the herdsmen The whole field they mowed down, and strewed the fruit before their beasts At first they were proud They slaughtered the cattle, and would eat nothing but flesh, and sausages, and roast meat, salad with it But when all was used up, and many people before the town had nothing more to eat, it was no better in the town they must therein suffer hunger, and wist not wherefrom they should live There were many who had had three cows, and had now not one They had to boil their broth thin, and flesh they had not at all

Then they agreed between the two parties that they should choose two men, one out of the camp and the other out of the town, and that they should throw dice against one another, to see who could make the highest throw The thrower from the camp threw seventeen Then shrieked out the man who was sent from the town a great shriek he went wild, and thought already that all was lost However, throw he must, nevertheless and he threw—eighteen! Then the burghers of Geismer, that the . . . must go away hungry, and left the city in peace To the burgher who had thrown so well, they have put a sign on the tower where he made his throw They had three great stones cut as if they were dice, and had them laid upon the topmost wall of the tower, and there are to be seen there eighteen eyes The old people who are still alive have seen the tower, and the dice which were on the top of it, therefore, we have called the tower *Wuorpeltharen*

§ 122. The two forms that have the best claim to be considered as Saxon, are (1) the Dual Pronoun; and (2), the Plural in *-t*. In the following extracts, we find examples of both.

(1)

Parts about Minden

Up den Baugen, up der Au
Blahet Blaumen helle,
Un de Haven klor un blau
Fahrt dei Angerquelle

In English

Up the hill, up the meadow,
 Blow bright flowers,
 And the Heaven, clear and blue,
 Colours the Angel springs

(2)

The Lappe

De Papen un de Hunne,
 Verdeumt er Braid met den Munne

In English

The parson and the hen
 Eatin then bread with the mouth

(3)

Parts about Rinteln

Wi kohnt et nich heven
 Wi hebbet schon Haren
 Dei moht wi verchuen
 Wi kohnt nich verdriegen,
 Dat du us wutt fegen
 Wi willt de nich wehien
 * * * *

Wi stahlt asse Eiken,
 * * * *

Wi kommet met Hacken

English

We can it not bear
 We have already lords
 Whom we must honour
 We can not bear
 That thou shalt sweep us
 We will not defend you,
 * * * *

We stand as oaks
 * * * *

We come with hooks

(4)

*Parts about Bielefeld**Martins-Lied*

Sunne Martin, hilges Mann,
 Dei us wat vertellen kann
 Van Uppeln un van Biern,
 Dei Niote fallt van der Mien
 Siet sou gout un giewet us wat?
 Lât't us nich to lange stan!
 Wi mot't nâ 'n Husken fôlder gân
 Van hier batt na Kaolen
 Dâ mot't wi auk kriajolen,
 Un Kaolen es nâ faren.

Kaolen es 'n schone Stadt,
 Schone Jungfer, giewet us wat '
 Giewet us 'n bitken Kouken '
 Dann lion wi nâ hellei roupen
 Giewet us 'n bietten Sommerkut '
 Touken Jar es Liesebatt de Biut

English

Martinmas Song

Saint Martin holy man,
 Who can tell us something
 Of apples and pears
 The nuts fall from the walls
 Be so good, and give us something
 Let us not too long stand '
 We must go home afoot
 From here to Cologne,
 There must we also caol
 And Cologne is far
 Cologne is a fine city
 Fan young woman, give us something,
 Give us a bit of cake
 That we may better shout
 Give us a bit of salad
 Thus year is Elizabeth the bride

(5)

Parts about Hildesheim

1.

Wi komet woll vor emes iiken Manns Door,
 Tau dussen Marten-Abend '
 Wi wunschet dem Heeren emen goldenen Disch,
 'N gebratenen Fisch,
 'N Glas mit Wien,
 Dat sall des Heeren Mahlhet sien,
 Tau dussen Marten-Abend

2

Wi wunschet dei Fuuen 'n goldenen Wagen
 Mit Silber beschlagen,
 Drin sall si den spazieren fahren,
 Tau dussen Marten-Abend

3

Wi hebbet 'ne Jungfer geschoonen,
 Von Gold un Silber 'ne krone.
 Dei Krone dei is saa wiet un breit,
 Bedecket dei leuwe Christenheit
 Bedecket dat Krunt un grune Grass,
 Dat Gott, dei Heere, erschaffen hat
 Tau Dussei Marten-Abend

English.

1

We come well before a rich man's door,
 On this Martin's eve,

We wish for the master a golden dish,
 A roast fish,
 A glass of wine,
 That shall be the master's meal,
 On this Martin's eve

2

We wish the lady a golden waggon,
 With silver covered
 Therein shall she go to walk
 On this Saint Martin's eve

3

We have for the maiden wreathed
 Of gold and silver a crown
 The crown is so wide and broad
 Covers the dear Christendom
 Covers the herb and green grass
 That God, the Lord, has slept
 On this Saint Martin's eve

(6)

The Lower Diemel

Da siet ree de Buffen, de Stangen, de Plangen,
 Se kommet un willt de Schandaamen uphangen
 Se stalt un'n'em Ghedde, de Scheten un Aım,
 Dat juet 'ne Geskichte dat Goed siek eibarm

English

There are ready the clubs, the poles, the whips,
 They come and will the gens d'armes up-hang
 They stand in a row, the guns on their aim,
 That gives a tale—God have mercy!

(7)

Parts about Munster

Vat kiekt us de Starnkes so fiendlick an,
 O Moder, wat hav ik di laiv!
 O saih, wu se spielet un lachet us an,
 O Moder, &c

English

Why look the stars so friendly on us?
 O mother, how I love thee!
 Oh, see how they play and laugh on us!
 O mother, &c

(8)

Parts about Gronenberg

Dann segg't se verdrethick "de kopp dot us weh,"
 De Eene will kofee, de annie will Thee
 Se segget, se grunen um us bue der Nacht,
 Dat sind Fameltuten dat hewt se bedacht

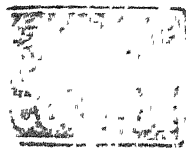
English

Then say they affectedly, "our head aches,"
 The one will coffee, the other tea

(9)

Gruenhage

Diene Aagen sint bruun un kialle,
 Un du weisst et wol nich, mien Kind !
 Dat se gluuve Funken scheitet
 Int harte, boase Kind

*In English*

Thy eyes are brown and lively,
 And thou knowest it not well, my child !
 That they shoot hot sparks,
 Thou hard, wicked child

(10)

Stade

1

Un wen see junge Eifken un Schinken will ceten,
 Haff id dee holten Teller dato nich vergeeten,
 Hier sund see, von Lindenholt witt un so blank,
 Gewiss, dee bleift so manning Jahi lang

2

Doch solt dee Spisen gesund sin un gefallen,
 Mutt Solt daran sin, dat beste Gewunze von allen,
 Een Solttatt, gron bunt un mit Gold, is een Ziei
 Un dat beste, wat ick kriegen kunn, bring' ick eer hier

In English

1

And when they will eat young peas and ham,
 I have not forgotten the wooden platteis
 Here are they of linden-wood, white and so clean,
 Ywiss they will be so many years long

2

Yet if the food is to be sound and good,
 Salt must be in the best spice of all
 A salt-cellar, green, variegated with gold, is an ornament,
 And the best I can crave bring I here

(11)

Ammerland—Oldenburg.

- 1 Ick weet wol, ick weet wol, wo goot wahren is,
 To Hollwege, to Hollwege, wenn't Sommer is
- 2 De Halstuppeis, de hewwt de fetten Swien,
 De Moorboigens, de diuwt se hemm
- 3 De Halsbecker, hewwt de hogen Schoh,
 De Eggelogen, snoiet se to
- 4 To Juhren steiht dat hoge Holt,
 To Linswege sund de Derens stolt.
- 5 Dat Ganholt is nich all to groot,
 Doch et't se gien Stutenbrod

- 6 To Hulstede sund de Straaten deep
To Westeistee sund de Maikens leep
- 7 De Fikenholter hewwt de Snippein-Schoh,
Damit treet se na de Westeisteder Karken to
- 8 To Mansie gaht de Stakenhauers uht,
To Ochholt staht de Sogen Hud
- 9 De Toisholter stuckt ahne Stavcelken uht.
Det weed' de Howieckeis seldom froh
- 10 De Seggerneis hewwt eenen hollen Boom,
Diinn hangt se ahren Sadel un Toom
- 11 To Westerloy sund de Graven to biaken,
To Lindern sind de Dooren gestaten
- 12 To Borgfoude da staht de hogen Poppeln
Dai geiht dat ganze Kaspel to Koppeln
- 13 To Westerstee da staeht de hoge Toorn
Daiby schall dat ganze Kaspel veisoorn

In English

- 1 I wot well, I wot well, where good winning is,
At Hollwegge, at Hollwegge, when it is summer
- 2 The Halstaupp men have the fat swine;
The Moorborg men they drove them away
- 3 The Halsbed men have the high shoes;
The Eggeloh men tie them
- 4 At Juhren stands the high wood,
At Linswege are the maidens proud
- 5 Garnholt is not too great,
Yet they eat willingly rye-bread
- 6 In Hulstede are the roads deep.
At Westerstee are the maidens lovely
- 7 The Fikenhotteis have buckled shoes,
Therewith they go to Westeisted church
- 8 At Mansie go the stake-hewers out,
- 9 The Forsholt men stick their boots out,
- 10 The Seggern men have a hollow tree;
Thereon they hang the saddle and bridles.
- 11 At Westerloh the graves are broken,
At Lindern are doors shut
12. At Borgford stand the high poplars,
- 13 At Westerstree stands the high tower;
Thereby shall the whole parish rue

(12)

Butjahde.

Hee schull by siens glyken blyven,
Wy kahmt also wyt as hee,
Ick kann lesen, rekenen, schreeven,
Dat is nok woll gar var diee.

In English

He should remain with his equals,
 We have come as far as he.
 I can read, reckon, write,
 That is enough for thee

(13)

Town of Oldenburg.

Een'n Ossen wilt wi vor Dī fohien,
 Dat sulvst Du sust wo groot se sind;
 Dock kann sik saken et geboien,
 Dat man se noch val groter findt.

In English

An ox will we before thee bring,
 That self you may see how big they are;
 Still it may, perhaps, happen
 That one may find them still bigger

(14)

Jever

Dat is te Banter Kaikhof,
 De liggt buten dieks up d'G100;
 De Tuten de roopt, un d Seekobb knitt,
 De Dooden de hooit to

In English.

That is the churchyard of Bant,
 That lies out up in the deep,
 The sand-pipers cry, and the seamews shriek,
 They belong to the dead.

(15)

Osnaburgh.

Dar ginten, dar kiket de Stauteu henup,
 Dar stahet wat aule Wywer in 'n Tripp,
 De Annke, de Hildke, de Geske, de Siltke,
 De Trintke, de Aultke, de Elsbeen, de Taultke;
 Wann de sick entnotet, dat schnaaterit sau sehr
 Liefhaftig as wenn't in 'n Gausestall wor.

In English.

There yonder, there look up the street,
 There stand the old women in a troop;
 The Annke, the Hildke, the Geske, the Siltke,
 The Trintke, the Aultke, the Elsbeen, the Taultke.
 When they meet each other, it cackles so sore,
 Just as if it were in a goose-stall

CHAPTER XVII

RELATIONS OF THE FRANK TO THE SAXON

§ 123. THAT no dialect of the Continental German is directly descended from either the Anglo-Saxon or the Old Saxon has already been stated. It has also been stated that the dialects derived from their nearest congener the Frisian, are spoken in only two or three not very important localities. Does this mean that the present language of Westphalia, Hanover, and Holstein is other than Saxon in its origin? Not necessarily. As a *genus* the Saxon comprehends the Frisian, and as a genus it may have comprehended other forms of speech which, without being either exactly Anglo-Saxon or Old Saxon in the strict sense of the word, may still have been more Saxon than aught else. Whether one of such forms may not have been the mother-tongue of the present Platt-Deutsch is a question that, whether we can answer it or not categorically, should be raised. We have already found more than one fact which suggests it. The language of the Carolinian Psalms was, more or less, equivocal: having been treated both as Old Saxon, and Old Dutch—Old Dutch meaning the Dutch of Holland. Again: the modern Dutch has more than once been called a descendant of the Old Frisian. It is not this exactly, though it is something very like it, being the descendant of a closely-allied form of speech. Of this we have no specimens of equal antiquity with the specimens of the Saxon Proper, and the Frisian; so that the comparison between the several mother-tongues in the same stage is impossible. The same is the case with the English of Scotland as compared with that of South Britain. Both are English; both descendants of the Anglo-Saxon. Whether they are descendants of exactly the same variety of the Anglo-Saxon is another question. Of the Scotch of the times of Alfred and Ælfric, we know nothing. It was, probably, more Northumbrian than West Saxon, (a point upon which more will be said when we come to the consideration of the English dialects,) and, probably, not exactly Northumbrian. At the same time, it was certainly Saxon rather than anything else.

Again—the fact of some of the existing dialects of Northern Germany having Saxon characteristics has been indicated. It is a fact, however, of which there are two explanations. The

forms in *-t* may have belonged to the original dialects of their several localities, *not* having belonged to the language by which it was displaced; in which case they are as purely Saxon as the forms in Alfred or Ælfric. On the other hand, they may have been common to both: in which case they are Saxon only by accident.

Now, what if the Old Platt-Deutsch did, actually, contain such forms? or what if, without containing them in each and all of its dialects, it contained them in those which were nearest Saxony—those which most especially spread themselves over Saxony? What if, in addition to these, it contained other forms which were also Saxon? What in short, if it were on its northern frontier at least, Saxon rather than aught else? The question is to some extent a verbal, to some extent a real one.

§ 124. It involves the meaning of the word *Frank*. Hitherto the contrast between the Frank and Saxon has been strong and sharp; or, at any rate, so sharp and so strong, that, although we may meet with districts of which we were doubtful as to the division to which they belonged, we have met with nothing that was, at one and the same time, both Saxon and Frank. The division, however, has been political rather than ethnological or philological. Let us now examine it more closely.

§ 125. *Philologically*, I believe that the division was a faint one. and that it is only by comparing the Frank and Saxon forms of speech from (comparatively speaking) either distant localities, or from different epochs, that any definite line of demarcation can be drawn. If so, the mother-tongue of the present Platt-Deutsch of the Saxon area, though diffused by Franks, may have been quite as much a Saxon dialect spoken within the Frank frontier as anything purely and simply Frank.

In doing this I write from a Saxon point of view, and, classifying by type rather than definition, take as the centre of my group the Frekkenhorst Muniments, and ask how far the dialects which may be associated with the form of speech represented thereby, can be found southwards?

From a Frank point of view I reverse the process; and ask how far northwards the dialects represented by the most northern of the undoubted Frank specimens are to be found? Doing this, I come to some which may be Frank within the frontier of Saxony.

This means that, though the philological division may have been slight, the political one was broad.

CHAPTER XVIII.

GERMAN ORIGIN, ETC.—PARTS OF GERMANY, ETC.—INTERNAL EVIDENCE.—LOCAL NAMES.

§ 126. As a general rule, the names on a map of England are British or English. A few, like *Etruria*, are new. A few, like *East-ville*, *Tower-le-Moors*, are, more or less, French. A few, like *Weston-super-mare*, are, more or less, Latin. Not a few are Danish. As a general rule, however, the names that we find at the present moment are names that, with a slight modification of form, may have belonged to either the British or the Anglo-Saxon period,—more especially to the latter.

Many, very many, of these are compounds; compounds wherein the element of the wider and more-general signification comes last; e g *Stántún*, or *Sandwíc*, is the town characterized by stones, or the *wic* characterized by sand.

§ 127. The following elements in the names of places deserve notice

Bæc, A. S. = *beck* = *brook*. The High German *bach*. It has (somewhat hastily) been considered a Danish, rather than an Angle, element.

Botl, A. S. = *bottle*—as in *Har-bottle* = *dwelling-place*, *building*. Common in the western half of the Duchy of Holstein.

Bróc, A. S. = *brook*—*Spell-brook*, &c.

Díc, A. S. = *dike*, *ditch*—*Dyke*, *Fos-dyke*, &c.

Ig, A. S. = *island*, as in *Ceortes-ig* = *Cherts-ey*

Feld, A. S. Form for form, this is the English *field*. In A. S., however, it meant an open tract of land rather than an enclosure.

Fen, A. S. = *fen*.

Fleet, A. S. = *fleet*, as in the *Fleet Ditch*, or the river *Fleet*.

Ford, A. S. = *ford*. Word for word, it is the same as the Danish *Fiord*. The Danish (Norse) *f-rd*, however, means an arm of the sea.

Ham, A. S. = *home*. The *-ham* in words like *Notting-ham*, *Threeking-ham*, &c.

Hangra, A. S.; *-anger*, English, as in *Birch-anger*, *Pensh-anger* = a meadow.

Hlaw, A. S. = *a rising ground*. The *-law* so frequent in Scotland, as applied to hills, *e g.* Berwick-*law*, &c.

Holt, A. S. = *holt* = *wood*, as in North-*holt*

Hyrne, A. S. = *corner, angle* Danish as well as Saxon, and, from being found in the more Danish parts of Britain, has passed for an *exclusively* Danish word—which it is not.

Hyrst, A. S. = *hurst* = *copse* or *wood* One of the most characteristic words of the list, as may be seen from the comparison of any map of Northern Germany, with one of Kent or Bedfordshire

Leah, A. S. = *lea* The *-ley*, in Baddow-*ley*, Mading-*ley*, &c.

Mere, A. S. and English—Whittlesea *Mere*.

Mersc, A. S. = *marsh*—Peas-*marsh*.

Mór, A. S. = *moor*—Dart-*moor*.

Mos, A. S. = *moss*—*moor*, or *swamp*; as in Chat-*mos*, i. e. a locality where *mosses* grow abundantly rather than the *moss* itself.

Næs, A. S. = *ness* (or *naze*)—Shoebury-*ness*, Walton-on-the *Naze*—Scandinavian as well as German. Indeed, it is more or less Slavonic and Latin as well—*noss* and *nas-us*.

Setr, A. S. = *settler*—Somer-*set*, Dor-*set*.

Stán, A. S. = *stone*—Whet-*stone*.

Steal, A. S. = *stall*—Heppen-*stall*

Stede, A. S. = *place* = the *-steud* in words like Hamp-*stead*, &c

Stow, A. S. = *place*—*stow*, Wit-*stow*.

Tóft, A. S. = *toft*, as in Wig-*toft*.

Tún, A. S. = *ton*—Nor-*ton*, Sut-*ton* = North-*town*, South-*town*.

Weg, A. S. = *way*—Strang-*way*.

Wic, A. S. = *wick, wich*—Aln-*wick*, Green-*wich*, *Wick*.

Worðig, A. S. = *worth* in Tam-*worth*, Box-*worth*.

Wudu, A. S. = *wood*—Sel-*wood*, Wich-*wood*.

Wyl, A. S. = *well*—Ash-*well*, Am-*well*.

Þorp, A. S. = *thorp*—Maple-*thorp*.

§ 128 (a) For the geographical names of one district to exhibit an accurate coincidence with those of another, the physical conditions of the countries should be identical. We cannot expect to find the terms that apply to fens and marshes in an alpine region; nor, *vice versâ*, the names for rocks and hills amongst the fens. Compare Holland with Derbyshire, and you will find but few names common to the two. Compare Lincolnshire with the Hartz, and the result will be equally negative. Com-

pare it, however, with Holland, and *fens* and *moors* occur abundantly.

(b) For the geographical names of one district to exhibit an accurate coincidence with those of another, their *meanings* should be identical. Sometimes this is the case. The *becks* of England are brooks or streams; those of Germany the same. The *-tons*, *-tuns*, or *-towns*, however, of Germany are of the rarest, indeed they are scarcely, if at all, to be found. Yet the word is German: its form being *zuun*. In Germany, however, it means a *hedge*, and in Holland (where it is *tuin*) a *garden*. The notion of *enclosure* lies at the bottom of its meaning. The details, however, which result from it are different.

(c) For the geographical names of one district to exhibit an accurate coincidence with those of another, their *form* should be identical. The element *-ham* is found all over Germany. But it is not found in the same parts: it is *-heim* in some; in others *-hem*, in others *-um*—e. g. *Oppen-heim*, *Arn-hem*, *Hus-um*.

CHAPTER XIX

GERMAN ORIGIN, ETC.—PART OF GERMANY, ETC.—INTERNAL EVIDENCE—PERSONAL NAMES.

§ 129 As a general rule the Anglo-Saxon personal names are compound words.

If the principle and details of these compounds ran exactly parallel with the principle and details upon which the names of the Anglo-Saxon geographical localities of the preceding chapter were constructed, the question as to their development and signification would be easy. In such a name as *Alf-red*, or *Ed-ward*, we should have the exact analogues of such words as *Stán-tun* or *Sand-wíc*, wherein the elements *-red* and *-ward* would be the names for some class of men invested with certain personal attributes (say *councillor*, or *warden*), and *Alf-* and *Ed-* would be qualifying nouns which told us what sort of *warden* or *councillor* the particular one under notice might be. They might mean *wise*, or *lucky*, or aught else. In such a case, the name would be one like *Wise-man*, *Good-fellow*, or some similar compound of the nineteenth century.

Now I do not say that this is not the case, and I also add that many good writers treat the whole subject of the Anglo-

Saxon personal names as if it were so. At the same time, I deny that the names of the men and women who were our early ancestors come out in their analysis and explanation half so clear as do those of our early towns, villages, rivers, and mountains. This will become manifest as we proceed.

As the list of the preceding chapter was taken from Mr. Kemble's *Codex Diplomaticus*, the examples of the present are from a paper by the same distinguished author *On the Names, Surnames, and Nic-Names of the Anglo-Saxons*, published in the *Proceedings of the Archaeological Institute for 1845*.

§ 130 Sometimes the name consists of a substantive preceded by an adjective, as *Æðel-stán* = *Noble-stone*. Without asking how it comes that a *man* gets to be called a *stone*, we may see at once that the combination itself is an eminently intelligible one. It is just such a one as *Wise-man* or *Good-fellow*, the instances already adduced, where the juxtaposition and nature of the two elements is transparently clear. They may not always give us a name of which we can see the origin; but they always give one of which we can see the principle.

Sometimes the name consists of a substantive preceded by a substantive; a substantive which in this case is, more or less, adjectival in character—e. g. *Wulf-helm* (*Wolf-helm*) This only differs from words like *Æðel-stán* in the way that such a compound as *Lock-smith* differs from *Black-smith*.

Sometimes the name consists of an adjective preceded by a substantive; as *Wulf-heāh*, *Wulf-high*. Here begin difficulties. If we were at liberty to translate this *high wolf*, the meaning would be intelligible, though the origin of the name might be inexplicable. But *Wulf-heāh*, if it mean anything, means *as high as a wolf*. Now a *wolf* is not an ordinary standard of measurement.

Sometimes the name consists of two adjectives, or, to repeat the previous formula, of an adjective preceded by an adjective, as *Æðel-heāh* (*Noble-high*). The English parallels to this are combinations like *light blue*, *deep green*. Now these are not compounds, but pairs of separate words, as is stated at large in the chapter on Composition.

Without saying how far these difficulties are great or small, important or unimportant, I limit myself to the statement that they are of far more frequent occurrence amongst the personal names of the Anglo-Saxons and the allied populations than they are amongst the local ones.

§ 131. As a general rule, the Angle personal names are compounds. It has also been said, that, of these compounds the latter, or *final*, element claims our chief consideration. The initial syllables are, however, not without interest, as may be seen from the following extract:—

"The Anglo-Saxon proper names have also very frequently a law of recurrence. It shows itself in the continued repetition of the first part of the compound in the names borne by members of the same family. Endless is the number of *Æthel*-helms, *Æsel*-bealds, *Æthel*-syrðs, and *Æthel*-stans. In one family we shall find in succession, or simultaneously, *Wig*-mund, *Wig*-helm, *Wig*-láf, *Wih*-stán, or *Beorn*-iic, *Beorn*-môð, *Beorn*-healh. *Beorn*-helm. A few examples drawn from history will make this abundantly clear.

"*Eormen*-ric was the father of *Æthel*-berht, the first Christian king of Kent, *Æthel*-berht's son of *Ead*-bald had issue two sons, *Eorcen*-berht and *Eormen*-ræd. Of *Eormen*-ræd's six children, three have then names compounded with *Eormen*-, three with *Æsel*-, thus, *Eormen*-burih, *Eormen*-berg, *Eormen*-gyð, *Æsel*-syrð, *Æse*-ræd, *Æthel*-beorht. *Eorcen*-berht's daughters were *Eorcen*-gote and *Eormen*-hild.

"Of the seven sons of *Æselfrith*, king of Northumberland, five bore names with *Os*-, thus *Os*-laf, *Os*-lác, *Os*-wald, *Os*-win, *Os*-widu. In the successions of the same royal family we find the male names *Os*-frith, *Os*-wine, *Os*-iic, *Os*-ræd, *Os*-wulf, *Os*-bald, and *Os*-beorht, and the female name *Os*-syrð, and some of these are repeated several times.

"Saint *Wig*-stan was the son of *Wig*-mund the son of *Wig*-láf, king of Mercia, and the sons of *Æthel*-wine, Duke of East Angles, were *Æsel*-wine, *Æthel*-wold, *Ælf*-wold, and *Æthel*-sige. His grandson again was *Æsel*-wine.

"Lastly, *Ælfred*'s son, *Ead*-weard, married *Ead*-gifu. Their children were *Ead*-wine, *Ead*-mund, *Ead*-ræd, and *Ead*-burih. *Ead*-mund's children, again, were *Ead*-wig and *Ead*-gâr. *Ead*-gâr had children, *Ead*-weard, *Ead*-gyð, and *Ead*-weard. His son *Ead*-mund, again, had two sons, *Ead*-mund and *Ead*-gâr."—*Kemble, in Transactions, de*

In a previous chapter this fact has been partially anticipated.

In the same chapter, too, may be seen the extent to which it differs from the ordinary alliteration of the Angle metres. However necessarily it may follow that words beginning with the same syllable shall also begin with the same letter, there is a broad difference between the two principles. It is one thing for so many words to begin with the same initial, another for so many compounds to be formed out of the same elements. If the latter carry with it the former, it is only in a secondary manner.

§ 132. *Forms in -ing* —The same chapter, with its so-called pedigrees, is referred to for instances of the affix *-ing*. It has the same power as the *-ιδης* in the Greek Patronymics, so that

Eādgār-ing means the son of *Edgar*, and Eādberht Eadgār-ing, Eadbert the son of *Edgar*—*Edbert Edgarson*.

§ 133. *Compounds of sunu = son*.—Could such a word as *Edgarson* (allowing for a difference of form) occur in the Angle stage of the English language? Assuredly it is common enough in the English stage of the Angle, *i. e.* in the language of the nineteenth century.—so it has been for some time. Now the paper which has already supplied so much gives us the following extract.—“Ministro qui Leófwine nomine et Bondan *sunu* appellatur cognomine.” (No. 1739.) Hence our answer is in the affirmative, it being safe to say that in the Angle stage of our language the method of signifying descent by the affix of the patronymic *-ing* was *not* the only one. Over and above, there was the use of the word *sunu = son*

Why, however, was the question asked? Because, common as are the compounds of *son* in English, they were rare in Angle. Again, common as were the forms in *-ing* in Angle, they are rare in English. This is a reason, but it is only one out of two. The other is the weightier one.

a. The forms in *-son* are not only rare in Angle, but they are rare in all the *Proper* German dialects; and—

b. They are not only *rare* in all the *Proper* German dialects (the Angle included), but they are extremely *common* in the Danish, Norse, and Swedish, *i. e.* in all the languages of the Scandinavian branch.

The inference from this can hardly fail to be drawn, viz. that all the numerous *Ander-sons*, *Thomp-sons*, *John-sons*, *Nel-sons*, &c., of England, are, more or less, Danish, as opposed to Angle.

Now, as the previous extract stands, it invalidates this inference. But it should be added that it comes from a charter of the *Danish* King, Cnut's (A D. 1023). So doing, it leaves the original inference as it was

Hence, I have limited myself to saying that the use of the word *son* (*sunu*) occurs during the Angle stage of the English language. I do not say that it occurs in the pure and unmodified language of the Angles.

The Latin extract is from the beginning of the Charter. At the end of it we find the same combination in Anglo-Saxon: “Ðis is Ȝára VII. hida bōc tó Hanitúne Ȝe Cnut Ang. gebócode *Leófwine Bondan sunu* on éce yrfæ.”—“*This is the book (deed) of the seven hydes at Hannington, which Cnut, the king, granted to Leofwine Bondeson for a heritage for ever.*”

CHAPTER XX.

GERMAN ORIGIN, ETC.—PART OF GERMANY, ETC.—INTERNAL
EVIDENCE.—NURSERY RHYMES

§ 134. THE evidence of the nursery rhymes, compositions of a truly popular character, is of the same kind as that afforded by the local and personal names. The following are all from the Saxon part of Germany; though it should be added that they are not from it exclusively. They are, for the most part, found elsewhere. Still, Lower Germany seems their great locality. The extent to which their general character is English is apparent.

1

Parts about Essen

Meeken woll noh Melken gohn,
Geng noh Paiter Finken,
Satt dat Dösken in dat Grasz,
Leit dat Keuken drinken
"Pademulken, Suckersnutken,
Eck haff sou lang op di gewacht!"
"Eck op di, du op mi,
Geele Blaumkes plucket wi"

In English

Maiden, will to milking go,
Went to . . .
Sent the pail in the grass,
Let the cowkin drink
"Pade-milken, Suckersnutken,
I have so long waited for you!"
"I for thee, thou for me,
Yellow flowers pluck we"

2

Tuck, tuck, tuck, mien Hä'meken,
Wat deiste in mienen Hofi?
Plucks mi alle Blaumkes aff,
Dat makste vol te groff
Da Mama wätt kweven,
Da Papa wätt schlöhn
Tuck, tuck, tuck, mien Hähneken,
Wu wätt et di noch gohn!

In English

Tuck, tuck, tuck, my henkin,
What doest thou in my yard?
Pluckest me all my flowers off,
That doest thou too rough.
Mammy will be angry,

Daddy will scold
Tuck, tuck, tuck, my henkin,
We must go after you

3

"Fiau, Frau, wat spinn i sou fletig?"
"For miene Mann n' golden Rink"
"Wo ess u Mann?"
"Inne Schuun"
"Wat deit ha do?"
"Eck segg et *nik* mich"
"O segget et mi all!"
"Ha ess op da Schuun un fourt da Kuukskes;
"Git mogget sa mi awei jou nich jagen"
"Ksch! ksch! ksch!"
"Fiau, Frau, et luft"
"Wat lutt et dann?"
"U Mann ess dout"
"Wa hett dat dann gedohn?"
"Eck, eck, eck!"

In English

"Wife! wife! what spin you so busy?"
"For my husband a golden ring"
"Where is your husband?"
"In the barn"
"What does he there?"
"I won't tell you"
"He is in the barn, and fother's two cowkins,
You may now so drive me off"
Ksh! ksh! ksh!
"Wife! wife! a noise"
"What noise is it then?"
"Your husband is out"
"What has then done?"
"Eck! eck! eck!"

4

Tinke, tanke, telleung,
Wanneer lusse gestowen?
Gistein Oowend um Lechtenl aaz
Maneken, Maneken, wu fant et di?
1 Half krank! 2 Gans krank!
3 Half dout 4 Gans dout
Lu! lu! lu!

In English

Tinke, tanke, telleung,
When did you die?
Yesterday evening . . .
Marykin, Marykin, how goes it with thee
Half sick, all sick
Half dead, all dead
Lu! lu! lu!

5.

Holstein

Slaap, mien Kindjen, slaap!
 Din Vader hott de Schaap,
 Din Moder plant't en Bomeken
 Slaap to, mien hantleev Honcken,
 Slaap, Kindjen, slaap!

In English

Sleep, my kinchm, sleep!
 Thy father keeps the sheep,
 Thy mother plants a boomikin
 Sleep, my dearest chikken,
 Sleep, kinchm, sleep!

6.

Hór! hó! hó!
 Wat stert vor unse Dór?
 Da stert en Mann mit sner Kiepen.
 De will uns' lutj Kindjen griepen.
 Hói! hor! hoi

In English.

Hark! hark! hark!
 Who's at the door?
 There stands a man, with his basket,
 Who will tako us little children
 Hark! hark! hark!

7

A. Blinde Koh, ik leide di.
 B. Woneem hen?
 A. Na'n Bullenstall.
 B. Wat sall 'k da doon?
 A. Klutjen un sòt Melk eeten.
 B. Ik heff keen Lepel.
 A. Nimm en Schüffel
 B. Ik heff keen Schüffel.
 A. Nimm en Tuffel
 B. Ik heff keen Tuffel
 A. Süh to, wo du een krigst

In English

A. Blnd cow, I lead you.
 B. Where?
 A. To the ox's stall
 B. What shall I do there?
 A. Eat curds and buttermilk
 B. I have not any spoon.
 A. Take a shovel
 B. I have not a shovel
 A. Take a slipper
 B. I have not a slipper
 A. See and get one

8

Lang un small
Hett keen Gefall
Kort un dick
Hett keen Geschluck—
Vun miner Maat
Un dat hett Laat

In English

Long and thin
Has no strength,
Short and thick
Has no sense:
My size,
That's right

9

Dum-bam-beier,
De Katt de mag keen Eier
Wat mag se denn?
Spek in de Pann
Ei, wo lekker is unse Madam!

In English

Boom-bam-byer,
Cat don't like eggs
What does she like?
Fat in the pan.
Ah, how dainty is my Madam!

10

Eija Popeia! wat russelt im Stro?
Unse lütjen Góse de hebben keen Scho.
Schoster hett Ledder, keen Leesten dato,
Dat he de lütjen Góse kann maken eer Scho
Eija Popeia!

In English

Eia Popeia! what rattles in the straw?
Our little goslings they have not any shoes
The shoemaker has leather, but no list,
To make the little goslings then shoes
Eia Popeia!

11.

Meelämmken, Mee!
Dat Lämmken leep in't Holt,
Et stótt sik an een Steeneken.
Do deed em wee sin Beeneken,
Do seed dat Lämmken "Mee!"
Meelämmken, Mee!
Dat Lämmken leep in't Holt,

Et stótt sik an een Stöckelken,
Do deed em wee sin Koppelken,
Do seed dat Lammken "Mee!"

Meelanmken, Mee!

Dat Lammken leep in't Holt,
Et stótt sik an een Stückerken,
Do deed em wee sin Bukelken,
Do seed dat Lammken "Mee!"

Meelanmken, Mee!

Dat Lammken leep in't Holt,
Et stótt sik an een Doeken,
Do deed em wee see Oreen,
Do seed dat Lammken "Mee!"

In English.

Mee lambkin, Mee!

The lambkin run in the wood,
He knocked against a stonykin,
He hurt his little bonykin,
And then the lambkin said "Mee!"

Mee lambkin, Mee!

The lambkin run in the wood,
He hit against a sticklekin,
And hurt his little noddlekin,
And then the lambkin said "Mee!"

Mee lambkin, Mee!

The lambkin run in the wood,
He hit against a strawikin,
And hurt his little bellikin,
And then the lambkin said "Mee!"

Mee lambkin, Mee!

The lambkin run in the wood,
He hit against a doorikin,
And hurt his little earikin,
And then the lambkin said "Mee!"

12

Maikawer, fliehg!
Dien Vahder is in Krieg,
Deine Mutter is in Pommeiland,
Pommeiland is ahfebrannt,
Maikawer, fliehg!

In English

Lady-bird, fly away!
Your father is in the war,
Your mother is in Pomerania,
Pomerania is burnt,
Lady-bird, fly away!

13

Oldenburg

Ick will di wat vertellen
Un leegen, wta ick kann.

Ick seeg 'n Mohle fleegen,
 Den Muller di achter ian.
 Ick stund in'n Diom un seeg di ian,
 Nu ho. is, wat ick leegen kann

In English.

I'll tell you a tale,
 And see what a lie I can tell,
 I saw a mill a flying,
 And the miller running after it.
 I stood in a diem
 And saw it all,
 And now hear what a lie I can tell

14.

Dubbeidubbeidub mien Mann is kamen.
 Dubbeidubbeidub wat hett he mitbragt ?
 Dubbeidubbeidub 'u Schupp mit Schellen
 Dubbeidubbeidub wat schölt se gellen ?
 Dubbeidubbeidub 'n halben Stuver,
 Dubbeidubbeidub dat is to duhr

In English

Dubadubdub, my husband is come
 Dubadubdub, what's he brought ?
 Dubadubdub, a ship with sails
 Dubadubdub, what does it cost ?
 Dubadubdub, half a stiver
 Dubadubdub, that's too dear.

15

Eenmal weer d'r is 'n Buur,
 De Buur de harr 'n Koh,
 De Koh de kreeg 'n Kalv,
 Nu is de Telk halv
 De Buur de jagt de Koh hennuut.
 Nu is mien Telk all ganz uut

In English

Once there was a farmer,
 The farmer had a cow,
 The cow had a calf,
 And now my tale's half told,
 The farmer drove the cow off,
 And now my tale's done

16

Anton, Anton, Gerderud,
 Stak dien dre, veer, Hoiens uut,
 Un wullt du se nich uutstaken,
 Will ick den Huus tobiaken,
 Will ick den Huus mit Steener besmieten,
 Schast d'r dien Laben un Dag nich 'uutkieken.

In English

Antony, Antony, Geiderud,
 Stick you three, four, horns out,

If you won't stick them out
 I'll break your house,
 I'll crush your house with stones

17

Jettken Pettken Pulvermuns
 Kamm vannacht in use Huis
 Un woll den Schinken stehlen
 Un schmetten't up't Dack,
 Do see't Quack

In English

Yetken Petken Pulvermuns
 Came to my house by night,
 And stole a ham,
 Then he crept up, and got on the roof,
 And he cried Quack !

18

The Lippe.

A, B, C,
 De Katte leup in den Schnee
 Os se wiet herut kamm,
 Hadde se 'ne witte Buksen an

A, B, C,
 De Katte leup in den Schnee
 De Muis leup er no,
 Do see de Katte jo

In English

A, B, C,
 The cat ran in the snow,
 When it got out
 It had its white stockings on

A, B, C,
 The cat ran in the snow,
 The mouse ran after her,
 To see the cat so

19.

Runtzelpuntzelken up der Bench,
 Runtzelpuntzelken unner der Bench,
 Ess nen Docter in Engeland,
 De Runtzelpuntzelken kureuen kann

In English.

Runzelbunzelken on the bank,
 Runzelbunzelken under the bank,
 There is not a doctor in England
 That can cure Runzelbunzelken.

20

Pairs about Munster.

Slaop, Kindken, slaop !
 Der buten geiht en Schaop,

Dat het soeke witte Folkes,
De Mialke sneek so ootkes,
Slaop, Kindken, slaop !

In English

Sleep kinchen, sleep !
Thereout there goes a sheep,
He has such white footkin,
The milk tastes (smalls) so sweet,
Sleep, kinchen, sleep !

21

Sipp Sapp, Summe,
Min' Moer is en Nunne,
Min Vaer is en Pape,
Kann alle Fiertkes maken
Sipp, Sapp, Sunnenkint,
Dat Water lopp der booven unt

In English

Sip, Sap, Summe,
My mother is a nun,
My father is the pope,
* * * *
Sip, Sap, Sunnenkint,
The water runs out above.

22

Aowens wen ick in min Bettken triade,
Tread' ick in Maria's Schaut.
Maria is min' Moder,
Johannes is min Broder,
De leuwe Hai is min Geleidsman,
De mi den Weg wull wisen kann
Twalt Engelkes gaot met mi,
Twée Engelkes an den Kopp-End,
Twée Engelkes an den Foten-End,
Twée an de rechte Siët,
Twée an de linke Siët,
Twée de mi decket,
Twée de mi wecket,
Jesus in min Hatken,
Maria in mnen Sinn,
Im Nannen Gaodes slaop ick in

In English

Even when I to my beddikin tread,
Tread I in Mary's bosom
May is my mother,
John is my brother,
The dear Lord is my leader,
Who can show me the way"
Twelve angels go with me,
Two angels on the head-end,
Two angels on the foot-end,

Two on the right side,
 Two on the left side,
 Two that cover me,
 Two that wake me,
 Jesus in my heart,
 Mary in my mind,
 In the name of God I sleep

§ 135 And here the investigation of the internal evidence stops. In a more elaborate work, three additional chapters, at least, would find their place, one upon the agreement or disagreement of the laws, and one upon the agreement or disagreement of the popular superstitions, as they exhibit themselves on the two sides of the German Ocean. Upon those, however, nothing could be written which should, at one and the same time, bear effectively on the question, and come within a moderate compass. The third would give the results of the examination of *tumuli*, a matter on which the archæologist, in the more limited sense of the term, would have much to say. The philologue can only (as he can do with safety) commit himself to the general statement that all results hitherto obtained point to the conclusion at which the preceding inquiries have conducted us.

CHAPTER XXI.

RETROSPECT, ETC.—AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE EXTERNAL AND INTERNAL EVIDENCE.

§ 136. LET us now look back upon the facts and questions of the preceding chapters, review the different points from which the subjects have been contemplated, consider the connection between them, and ask what results they prepare us for.

1. That the English language came from Germany.
2. That it fixed itself in England between A.D. 369 and A.D. 597, has been admitted without doubt or reservation.
3. That by the middle of the eighth century it had displaced the language, or languages, of Roman Britain, except in Wales and Cornwall.

With this ends the list of positive and admitted facts. They are evidently few enough. And not only are they few in number, but they are as little precise as numerous. Germany is a

large place; the interval between A D. 369 and A D. 597 a long one. The commonest of the current histories tells us more than this, tells it in fewer words, and tells it in a less indefinite and roundabout manner. Be it so.

4 The fifth chapter justifies the hesitation and circumlocution of the preceding four, and is devoted to the exposition of some of the chief reasons which invalidate not only the current accounts, but the original *data*, on which they are founded. Doing this, it foreshadows the necessity of a different line of criticism. Special and direct evidence being wanting, we must betake ourselves to inference instead.

For the time and place under notice, we have neither maps nor descriptions, no map for Northern Germany, no description, during the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh centuries, for the North-German populations. We have, however, an accredited date for the first invasion of Britain—viz A D. 449, the year of the supposed advent of Hengest and Horsa.

Taking this as a sort of central epoch, we ask two questions.—

5. What accounts have we, in the way of external evidence, for the times nearest this date and *following* it?

6. What accounts have we, in the way of external evidence, for the times nearest this date and *preceding* it?

The following chapters deal with these. To proceed.—

7 As it is clear that if we get the state of things on a given area at two different and distant periods and find them agree we get the state of things for any intermediate one, the extent to which changes have taken place during the interval is the next point that requires consideration.

The result, then, is that the notices of Northern Germany of the second century are essentially the same as those of the ninth, the differences being apparent rather than actual, and the changes which those differences imply being *nominal* rather than *real*. Hence the accounts of certain early classical, and of certain later Carolingian writers are, to a certain extent, valid for the events of the interval between A D. 369 and A.D. 597.

So much for the question of external evidence, which is not direct, but circumstantial. Respecting this, we have got at the fact that the two sets of witnesses that supply it agree with, rather than contradict, each other. At the same time, the agreement is by no means transparently visible on the surface, or complete when seen.

CHAPTER XXII.

SPECIAL AND DIRECT EVIDENCE OF BEDA.—TEXTS, ETC

§ 137. As opposed to the criticism of the previous chapters, the evidence upon which the current doctrines respecting the Angle invasions are based may be called *direct* or *special*.

The palmary texts are the following; the first being from Beda.

Translation.

"They came from three of the chief peoples in Germany, viz the *Saxons*, the *Angles*, and the *Jutes*. Of *Jute* origin are the occupants of *Kent* and *Wight*, i e the nation which occupies the Isle of Wight, and that which, to this day, in the province of the West Saxons, is named the nation of the *Jutes*—opposite the Isle of Wight. From the *Saxons*, i e from that country which is named after the *Old Saxons*, came the *East Saxons*, the *South Saxons*, the *West Saxons*. Moreover, from the *Angles*, i e from that country which is called *Angulus*, and which from that time to this is reported to have been as a desert between the provinces of the *Jutes* and *Saxons*, came the *East Angles*, the *Midland Angles*, the *Mercians*, and all the stock of the *Northumbrians*."

In the Original

"Advenciant autem de tribus Germaniæ populi fortioribus, id est *Saxonibus*, *Anglis*, *Jutis*. De *Jutarum* origine sunt *Cantuari* et *Vectuari*, hoc est ea gens, quæ Vectam tenet insulam. et ea, quæ usque hodie in provincia Occidentali Saxonum, *Jutarum* natio nominatur, posita contra ipsam insulam Vectam. De *Saxonibus*, id est ea regione, quæ nunc *Antiquorum Saxonum* cognominatur, venerunt *Orientales Saxones*, *Meridiani Saxones*, *Occidentales Saxones*. Porro de *Anglis*, hoc est de illa patria, quæ *Angulus* dicitur, et ab eo tempore usque hodie manere desertus inter provincias Jutarum et Saxonum perhibetur, *Orientales Angli*, *Mediterranei Angli*, *Mercii*, tota *Northumbriorum* progenies."

The following (little more than a translation from the Latin) is from the Saxon Chronicle (A.D. 449):—

Translation

"They came from three powers of Germany, from Old Saxons, from Angles, from Jutes

"From the Jutes came the inhabitants of Kent and of Wight, that is, the race that now dwells in Wight, and that tribe amongst the West-Saxons which is yet called the Jute kin. From the Old Saxons came the East-Saxons, and South-Saxons, and West-Saxons. From Angle (which has since always stood waste betwixt the Jutes and Saxons) came the East-Angles, Middle-Angles, Mercians, and all the Northumbrians."

In the Original

"Ða comon þa men of þim meġsum Germaniæ, of Eald-Seaxum. of Anglun, of Jotum

"Of Jotum comon Cantware and Wihtware, þæt is seo mærað, þe nū eairðaþ on Wiht, and þæt cyn on West-Seaxum þe man gyt hæť Iutnacyn Of Eald-Seaxum comon East-Seaxan, and Suð-Seaxan, and West-Seaxan Of Angle comon (se a siððan stod westig betwix Iutum and Seaxum) Eást-Engle, Middel-Angle, Meace, and calle Norð-mbia "

Thurdly ; Alfred writes—

Translation

"Came they of three folk the strongest of Germany, that of the Saxons, and of the Angles, and of the Geats Of the Geats originally are the Kent people and the Wiht-settlers, that is the people which Wiht the Island live on "

In the Original

"Comon of þym folcum þa strangestan Germaniæ, þæt of Saxum, and of Angle, and of Geatum, of Geatum framæn sindon Cantware and Wiht-sætan, þæt is seo þeod se Wiht þæt eairðaþ on eairðaþ

§ 138. The objection to these notices refers to three questions:—(1) the meaning of the word *Jute*; (2) the import of the term *Saxon*, (3) the claims of the district called *Angulus* to be considered the mother-country of the English.

CHAPTER XXIII.

SPECIAL AND DIRECT EVIDENCE OF BEDA —CRITICISM.—THE JUTES PROBABLY GOTHs.

§ 139. THAT *Jute* means the Jutlanders of Jutland, we learn from the context, which tells us, that their country was continuous with *Angulus*.

Now the Jutlanders, at the present moment, are *Danes*. Yet in no other part of England do we find the Danes of Jutland treated as Jutes, but, on the contrary, as ordinary Danes. In Lincolnshire, in Yorkshire, in several other counties, there were, as far as the actual population was concerned, Jutes in abundance. The name, however, by which they are designated is *Dane*. Hence, if a Dane from Jutland, when he settled in the Isle of Wight, was called a Jute, he was named in accordance with a principle foreign to the rest of the island. True Jutlanders would also have been Danes; and if they were Danes they would have been called *Dene*, and *Denisce* Again; in Lincolnshire, in

Yorkshire, in several other counties where there was an abundance of Jutes, there both was, and is, abundance of evidence to their occupancy. The names of their settlements (as aforesaid) ended, and end, in *-by*, as Grims-*by*, Whit-*by*, &c. Let any one look to any ordinary map of England, and count the names of this kind, let him, then, look to their distribution. Let him note the extent to which they appear in each and all of the districts where Danes have ever been supposed to have settled, and, then, let him note their utter absence in the parts where Beda places his Jutes. Compare Lincolnshire, which was really Danish, with Kent, Hants, and the Isle of Wight, which are only Jute, and the possibility of error will become apparent. And why should it be impossible? why should it be even improbable? Beda is, doubtless, a grave authority. But is it Beda who here speaks? All that Beda tells us, at first-hand, is the fact to which he was cotemporary, viz. the fact of their being a "*gens quæ Vectam tenet insulam, et ea quæ usque hodie in provincia occidentaliū Saxonum Jutarum natio nominatur.*" How they came there was another matter; an ordinary piece of history, for which, perhaps, Bishop Daniel was his informant, Bishop Daniel having no personal knowledge of the event, which happened some 200 years before he was born.

That they were *Jutæ*, in the parts under notice, seems to be a fact. Their origin from Jutland seems to be an inference: and I submit that it was an incorrect one. I submit that, as far as these *Jutæ* were Jutes, at all, they were Jutes from the opposite coast of Gaul, rather than Jutes from Jutland. If so, they were *Goths*. This I believe, then, to have been the case. Word for word the two forms are convertible; besides which, Alfred's form is *Geat*, and in the work attributed to Asser the name, *totidem literis*, is *Gothrus*.

§ 140. After the death of Alaric, which took place A D 410, the details of the Gothic movements become obscure. The name, however, of Ataulfus, or Adolph, the brother-in-law of the deceased monarch, stands prominent. So does the evacuation of Italy. No longer the enemy of Rome, but, on the contrary, the ally and brother-in-law of the Emperor Honorius, Adolfus not only relieves Italy from the hateful presence of his troops, but lends services against the pretenders, and the rebels of the countries, beyond the Alps. Having marched from the southern extremity of Campania into Gaul, he occupies Narbonne, Toulouse, and Bourdeaux, having suffered a re-

pulse before Marseilles His loyalty to Rome seems to have been sincere, and a remarkable conversation, which he held with a citizen of Narbonne, of which more will be said in the sequel, represents him—according to his own account—as one who had proposed to himself a laudable object of ambition, it being his “wish that the gratitude of future ages, should acknowledge the merit of a stranger, who employed the sword of the Goths, not to subvert, but to restore and maintain, the prosperity of the Roman Empire” This is between A.D. 410 and A.D. 415.

The name of Constantine now commands notice Between A.D. 400 and A.D. 410 three usurpers followed each other, in quick succession, first, Marcus; next, Gratian, thirdly, Constantine; a private soldier, with a borrowed name, and an eventful history. He consolidated his power in Britain, and he extended it Gaul had already been overrun by the armies of Rhadagaisus, and other barbarians, and, as Rome was at the time in the hands of Alaric, assistance from the Imperial metropolis was out of the question. Constantine, then, professed himself a deliverer, and he made good his claim by some partial successes. Some bodies of the barbarians he defeated; others he took into his pay. At Vienne he fortified himself within the walls, and, soon after, the Imperial army having crossed the Alps, and retired into Italy, he was, virtually, the sovereign of Gaul This was A.D. 408

As ruler of Gaul, he invaded Spain; which he gained by submission rather than conquest. so that, when Ataulfus evacuated Italy, the title of Constantine was acknowledged from the Picts' Wall to the Columns of Hercules

He now engages to deliver Italy from the Goths—for the submission of Spain was anterior to any compact between Honorius and Adolphus,—and, in either attempting it or pretending to do so, marches as far as the Po But only to march back again. In Arles, his capital, he, first, celebrates his triumph, and, next, hears of the revolt of Gerontius, one of the best of his generals, who had been left with the command in Spain. But Gerontius invests another with the purple,—Maximus, whom he leaves at Tarragona, whilst he, himself, presses forward into Gaul to attack Constantine, and his son Constans—his son and colleague; his son, already invested with the purple, but destined to an early fall. He is made prisoner at Vienne, and put to death His father takes his stand in Arles, and is besieged. The siege, however, is raised by an Imperial army, to the leader of which

it must have been difficult to determine whether Constantine, or Gerontius, was his enemy. It was the latter, however, who retreated. After his death, Maximus is permitted to reign; but only for a while. Spain returns to its nominal or real dependence upon the Empire, and Maximus afterwards is executed.

The general who defeats Gerontius was a Constantius, and now he turns his arms against Constantine, whose reign is coming to an end. He sends his ambassador, Edolic, to negotiate an alliance with the Franks and the Alemanni, and, by doing this, effects a slight diversion of the arms of Constantius. The support, however, fails, and he opens the gates of Ailes to the Roman general. His abdication follows the entrance of the conqueror, and his death his abdication. He is sent, along with his son Julian, under a strong guard, to Italy, and before they reach Ravenna, they are put to death. This was November 28, A.D. 411—a year after the death of Alaric, and a little before Adolphus enters Gaul.

Meanwhile, there was another usurper, Jovinus, the *nominee* of Goar, the king of the Alans, and Guntiarus, the king of the Burgundians. He was invested with the purple at Metz. To him, from motives unknown, Constantius abandoned Gaul—which was now beginning to feel the influence of Adolphus; at first—but only for a time—the ally and adviser of Jovinus; who, after associating with himself his brother Sebastian, accepts the services of Sarus; Goth, like Adolphus, but either not a Visigoth at all, or, if a Visigoth, one who was hostile to the new-comers. Or rather Adolphus was hostile to him: for he attacked him unexpectedly, when attended by only a few followers, and cut him and his little band to pieces. And now his loyalty to Rome was at its height. He disgraces Attalus, and sends the heads of Jovinus and Sebastian to Rome.

In A.D. 414 Adolphus invades Spain; but the details of the Gothic conquests in the Peninsula bear but little upon the question before us. It is those of the Goths of Gaul that we are more especially investigating. However, it is in the palace of Barcelona that he is assassinated; and that by a Goth, a follower, client, or friend of the murdered Sarus.

Adolphus died August, A.D. 415. His successor, Singerie, was a brother of Sarus; but was assassinated on the seventh day after his elevation. Walha succeeds: and, after devoting three years to the consolidation of his power in Spain, crosses the Pyrenees, and establishes himself in Aquitaine: when his kingdom

included, *inter alia*, the flourishing cities of Bourdeaux, Périgueux, Angoulême, Agen, Saintes, Portiers, and Toulouse,—seven in number, so that the country was described as a Septimania. Sidonius Apollinaris, a cotemporary writer, applies this term to the Gothic district of the Seven Cities.

Such are the chief details of the Goths of Gaul, about A.D. 420. Concurrently with the then conquest ran those of the Burgundians and the Franks: *where* these were effected we learned from the names *Burgundy* and *Franche Compté*. The Frank frontier, however, enlarged itself in the direction of Lorraine, Flanders, and Holland.

The *Littus Saxonicum* and *Armorica* give us the remainder: for, with these exceptions, all Gaul has been accounted for. Let us say, for the present, that the one is Saxon, and the other either Roman or Keltic, or, if not exactly this, Roman and Keltic. Let us say this, and return to our Goths. Their rule lasts nearly a century. It begins with Wallia A.D. 419, and ends A.D. 508, when the Franks under Clovis carry all before them, and when France, however German it may be, in many respects, ceases to be either Gothic or Burgundian, either Saxon or Gallic, and is known as the great kingdom of the Salian Franks.

Wallia dies soon after his conquest, and is succeeded by Theodoric, whose flourishing and important reign lasts from A.D. 419 to A.D. 451.

CHAPTER XXIV

SPECIAL AND DIRECT EVIDENCE OF BEDA.—CRITICISM.—HIS SAXONS, PROBABLY ANGLES UNDER ANOTHER NAME.

§ 141. THE text of Beda suggests a difference between the Angles and the Saxons. Is this difference real or nominal? I believe it to be nominal. I submit that the Saxons were neither more nor less than Angles under another name.

At the present moment the Welsh call the English Saxons, and it is presumed that they do so because their ancestors, the ancient Britons, did so before them.

That the Romans and Britons spoke of the Angles in the same

way is highly probable. If one population called them Saxons, the other would do the same.

The name by which the *Non-romanizing* Germans of England (the Angles) were known to the Romans would, probably, be the name by which they were known to the *Romanizing* Germans (the Franks and Goths).

Now, that this name was *Saxon* is by no means a matter of conjecture. on the contrary, it is one on which we have a good deal of satisfactory evidence. That the Britons used it is inferred from the present practice of the Welsh. That the Romans used it is inferred from the *Litus Saxonicum* of the Notitia. That the Franks used it is shown in almost every page of their annals.

I submit, then, that, whilst the invaders of Britain from the North of Germany called themselves *Engles*, the Britains called them *Saxons*. The name, however, though other than English in its origin, soon became Anglicized. Thus, the country of the—

Orientalis Saxones became *East-Seaxe*, now *Essex* ;
Meridiani Saxones „ *South-Seaxe*, „ *Sussex* ,
Occidui Saxones „ *West-Seaxe*, „ *Wessex* ,

all in contact with the county of Kent, in which the name probably arose.

I now add—that no *real* difference between the Angles and Saxons has ever been indicated. That undoubted Angles, like the men of Yorkshire or Northumberland, can be shown to differ from the so-called Saxons of Sussex or Essex in manners and dialect no one denies. But do they not differ as North-countrymen and South-countrymen, rather than as Saxons and Angles? Who finds any difference between Saxon Essex and Angle Suffolk?—between Saxon Middlesex and Angle Hertfordshire? Yet this is the difference required under the hypothesis that the Angles and Saxons were really different populations. Again, the king who is said to have called the whole island England, or the land of the Engles, was Egbert, king of Wessex, a Saxon rather than an Angle. We may believe that this was the case when an Emperor of Austria proposes that all Germany shall be called Prussia.

To conclude:—I suggest that the conquerors of England, who introduced the English language and gave the island its present name, bore two names.

They were called by themselves,	<i>Angles</i>
" " the Frisians,	<i>Angles</i> .
" " the Danes,	<i>Angles</i>
But, by the Kelts, they were called	<i>Saxons</i> .
" Romans, " "	<i>Saxons</i> .
" Franks, " "	<i>Saxons</i> .
" Goths, " "	<i>Saxons</i> .

Where the latter populations determined the nomenclature the latter names prevailed.

§ 142. In *one* way, however, notwithstanding the previous arguments, the Saxons may have been different from the Angles. The latter may have come *direct* from Germany: the former from the *Littus Saxonicum*. If so, the populations of the districts in *-sex*—*Es-sex*, *Middle-sex*, *Sus-sex*, and *Wes-sex*—were only of remote, or indirect, German origin. Though I indicate this difference, I am not prepared to defend it.

CHAPTER XXV.

SPECIAL AND DIRECT EVIDENCE OF BEDA.—HIS *ANGULUS* — CRITICISM —LANGUAGE OF ANGLLEN.

§ 143. THE statement of Beda respecting the district of which the Latin name was *Angulus*, like many of his other statements, re-appears in more than one of the authors who wrote after him.

ALFRED

(1)

Translation

And on the west of the Old Saxons is the mouth of the river Elbe and Friesland, and then north-west is the land which is called *Angle* and Sealand, and some part of the Danes

In the Original

And be wæstan Eald-Seaxum is Albe muða and Friesland And þanon west norð is þæt land, the man *Angle* hæð, and Sillende, and summe dæl Dena —*Oros*, p 20

(2)

Translation

He sailed to the harbour which is called Hæðum, which stands betwixt the Wends and Saxons, and *Angle*, and belongs to Denmark . and two days before he came to Hæðum, there was on his starboard Gothland, and Sealand, and many islands. On that land lived *Engles*, before they hither to the land came.

In the Original

He seglode to þam porte þe man hæf Hæþum, se stent betwux Winclum and Seaxum, and *Angle*, and hyrð in on Dene and þa twegen dagas ær he to Hæþum come, him wæs on þæt steorbord Gotland and Sillende and iglanda tela On þem landum eardodon Engle, ær læser on land comon — *Oros*, p. 23

The geography is clear. *Angulus* means the district which is now called *Anglen*, a triangle of irregular shape, formed by the Sile, the Flensborger fiord, and a line drawn from Flensborg to Sleswick. It may be the size of the county of Rutland, or a little larger; and it lies on the side of the Peninsula furthest from England. Although one of the most fertile parts of Sleswick, it was likely to have been a desert; inasmuch as it was a frontier land, or March, between the Danes and the Slavonians (or Wends) of the eastern half of Holstein. But it was not likely to have been the mother-country of any large body of emigrants; still less for an emigration across the German Ocean; least of all for such a one as conquered England. There is, however, no objection to the *Anglen* of Sleswick having been *part* of the country of the Angles who invaded England. The only objection lies against its having been co-extensive with the mother-country of the English. That a population sufficiently strong to have conquered and given a name to England and sufficiently famous to have been classed amongst the leading nations of Germany, both by Beda himself and by Ptolemy before him; is to be deduced from a particular district on the frontier of Jutland rather than from Northern Germany in general, from a section of the Duchy of Sleswick rather than from Holstein and Hanover at large,—is unlikely.

§ 144. *On the Language of Anglen*.—The statement that there is no objection to Anglen having been *part* of the land of the Angles is the only one that can be made. Nor can it be made without certain cautions and qualifications. Anglen can scarcely have belonged to the original Angle area, but, on the contrary, can only have been an outlying settlement—a settlement of certain Angles who made their way in the direction of Denmark, even as the conquerors of Britain made their way in the direction of Wales and Ireland. This is because the parts between the Angle districts of Germany were separated from the Anglen of Sleswick by the Slavonians of Holstein: whilst the western part of Sleswick itself was Frisian—the Frisians being (by the Danes at least) clearly distinguished from the Angles. Still, as certain Angles may

have found their way to the parts about the present towns of Lubeck and Travemunde, and (*via* the Trave) have taken possession of certain parts of Sleswick, the Angle origin of the present occupants of Anglen is by no means impossible. Nevertheless, it is extremely doubtful.

The details of the dialects of Anglen are well known. At the beginning of the historical period, the district lay well within the limits of Denmark as opposed to Germany. Inasmuch as it lay to the north of the Dannevirke, and to the north of a district wherein (at least) two Runic descriptions in pure Norse have been discovered.

1 *

Dulf nışt sten þonsi lompigi Svns eftir Eirik felaga sin ies varþ dauþr ho
ðegja satu um Hathabu, iar har vas stummað, ðingi haða goðr

In Danish

Thorlef reiste denne Steen, Svends Hjembo, efter sin Staldbroder Eirik,
som dode, da Heltene sade om Hedeby, han var Stjemand, en saare god
Helt

In English

Thorlef cut this stone, Svends home after Eirik fellow his was dead hen
(when) the heroes sat about (besieged) Hatheby He was steerman, a hard
good hero

2

Osfrið gerði kumbl oft Sutrík sun sin . . .

In Danish

Osfrið gjorde Hoi efter Sutrík sin Son

In English

Osfrið made (*Scottish* gait) barrow, after Sutrík his son

It also lay to the north of the Danischwald, or Danish Wood, and, *à fortiori*, to the north of the Eyder, the convenient, if not exactly the accurate, boundary between Denmark and Germany.

It also lay to the north of a series of villages ending in the characteristic termination *-by*, viz. *Haby*, *Norby*, *Osterby*, *Gothelby*, *Hekkeby*, *Guby*, *Vindeby*, and *Hedeby* (*Hanthabu*) — To which add, from the district of Svanso, on the east, *Nyby*, *Sohy*, *Sonderby*, &c.

In all these, however, the Danish language has given way to the Platt-Deutsch, so that the question as to any actual intermixture of the original Norse in the parts to the south of Anglen, has no existence in the minds of even its most zealous partizans. I use this term, because it is scarcely necessary to

* From Allen, vol 1 pp 9, 10

say that, in Denmark, the matter has assumed a serious and a political aspect.

§ 145. *Anglen*, however, is claimed as a *mixed* district, *i. e.* as one in which the Danish and the Platt-Deutsch are spoken concurrently. There is no doubt as to this being the case. Neither is there any doubt as to the Danish being the older language. The local names ending in *-by* are (as has been shown) numerous. The introduction of the German is a matter of history. The exact date, however, of its *preponderance* is uncertain. So are the exact proportions borne by it, at the present moment, to the Danish. In respect to this I find the statement that the Church Service in Anglen was never read in Danish; in other words, that, as early as the time of the Reformation, the German was sufficiently prevalent to exclude its rival language from the reading-desk. To this, however, one of the latest and best authorities on the subject, Allen, in *Det Danske Sprogs Historie i Hertugdømmet Slesvig eller Synderjylland*, objects, giving some curious facts in a different direction. Thus, in the sixteenth century, the parishioners of Gelting complain that their pastor knows no Danish, whilst in Husby, Eskriss, and Haveltoft the registers between A.D. 1603 and A.D. 1635 contain certain Danish entries. Now, however much these facts may give us an *approximation* to a Church Service, it is not the Church Service itself; so that, upon the whole, the original statement is true, *viz* that Anglen was the first district, north of the Sles, in which the Platt-Deutsch was the language of the preacher. This was as early as there was any preaching in the vernacular at all.

How far the Danish still survives is another question. Recent inquiries have shown that it is anything but extinct. There is more of it in the north than the south. It is generally understood. It is spoken, when needed, by the majority. It is spoken, from choice, by few. By a few it is neither spoken nor understood. In no case, however, is it spoken to the exclusion of the Platt-Deutsch.

Though this has a greater bearing upon Danish politics than upon English philology, it is, by no means, irrelevant. The more we know what Anglen really is the better shall we value Beda's statement concerning it. One thing is certain, *viz* that, whether Danish or German, at the present moment, it shows no signs of ever having been English. The Danish is older than the German, but there is nothing older than the Danish—no-

thing, at least, within the range of history. Neither is there any tradition, though the belief, on the *other* side of the peninsula, that the *Frisians* are akin to the English, is both correct and well founded. Neither is it certain that *Anglen* is the equivalent to *Anglia*, for which the Danish would be either *Engelland* or *Engle*. It seems rather to mean *The Angle*. At any rate Beda's term is *Angulus*, and the district itself is *Anglen*. That learned men have looked upon the dialect of the district as a mixture of Danish and Platt-Deutsch with a dash of the original Anglo-Saxon, is not to be wondered at. Yet, no undoubted Anglo-Saxon element has ever been discovered in it.

SPECIMENS

*The Prodigal Son**Parts about Bol—Danish*

En Man ho to Sennei, a den yngest a dem so te æ Faer. "Faer gi mæ den Dæl a æ Gos, dei filder mæ te," a han diel dem æ Gos. A it manne Dav dættet saanked den yngest Son olt sit, a dæ væk i et Laend vidt dæfaa, a han la dei o hva han ho i et iuglost Lovne. Men som han sin ho foteæ olt, hva han ho, blev dei en stuu. Honger i de saem Laend a han begynt a li No. A han gik hen a holdt sæ te en Boner dei i æ Laend, a han skekked ham u aa æ Mauk a vaer æ Svun. A han ho gein æt Mask, hva æ Svun fek, men dæ var ingen a ga ham norve. Men han gik i sæ sjel a so "hvomanne Davlonnei hæi min Faer di hæi ingele Bie, a æ dæi a Honger. Æ vil staa op a gaa te min Faer a si te ham. Æ hæi fo(r)si mæ emoi æ Himmel a emor dæ, æ ei it bet væi a jerr din Son, gyi mæ te jen a din Davlonnei." A han sto op a gik te sin Faer. Mon som han enon var et laant Stykk dæfaa, so sin Faer ham, a defotæyer ham fo ham, a han lof hen a foldt ham om æ Hals a kyssed ham. A æ Son so te ham. "Faer, æ hæi fo(i)si mæ" &c. Men æ Faer so te sin Svunn. "Tæjer de best Ty hir a dæjer dem aa ham, a gier ham en Rung aa sin Haend aa Sku aa sin Forie, a hunter et fedt Kalle aa slaver et a la vos ær a væi glai, for den hjer Son va do, a han hæi vunn lövvend ægjen, a han va taft, a han hæi vunn funnen ægjen. A di begynt a væi luste

Platt-Deutsch of the District

En Man har twe Söns. Un de jungste von se sa to de Fatter. "Fatter, gif mi de Deel von et Vermogen, de mi tofallt." Un he delei se dat Gut. Un nich veihl Dag danah sammlei de jungste Söa al wat he hæi to samen a tiok no en fiende Land wit weg un verkehrn do sin Gut in en richlose Lebend. Awei als he verahit har al wat he har, wuir' da en grote Hungersnoth in et solbige Land, un he begynner un le Mangel. Un he ging hen un hel sik to een von de Boigers da in et Land, un de schicker em ut op sin Land, de Swem to wahren. Un he har sik gein holpen mit Masch, wat de Svun eten, awei da wahr kem un gev em watt. Awei he ging in sik selbst un sa, "Worvehl Daglohnners bi min Fatter hem rikhg Brot, awei ik mott Hungersstarben. Ik will opstahn un to min Fatter gahn un to em seggen. Fatter, ik heff mi veisehn gegen de Himmel un gegen di. Un bin nich mehr weith un heten din Son, mak mi to een von din Daglohnners." Un

he stunn op un kehm to sin Fatter Awei als he nach wit weg wahr, seg sin Fatter em, un et vedhoot em haethlich, un he hb hen un fall em om de hals un kussei em.

Parts about Tolk —Danish

En Mann ho tou Sónnei, à den ougst so te hains Fai "Gie ma, Fai, den Diel a Pang, de ma hòri, à ham dielt em de Páng" A int lãng deratter sankede den ougst Son olt sammel, à gik wried, ur ar Lain, à dei feikamm hain oll Páng ma Flein a Drukken Som hain no ho oll hains Pang feitchi, so kamm en stin dyer Tee i a hiel Lain, a ham begynt à hongei, à gik hen à ween ssà te'n Mann i à Stai, den schikkede ham te Maikens, te à war a Schwin, à hain well fyll hains Lin ma Auen, de de Schwin fr ar'ooi') a ungen ga ham nauer Da gik ham i ssa à so "Wo mange Daylonner herr min Fai, som der ha Bionok, à à feidarnere far Hunger, a a will sto op a go hen te min Far, à see te ham Far a her giei uret i Himmere a foi dæ, à a ei no ikke bet war à jur din Son, gier ma te din Daulonnei" A hain sto op a kam te hains Fai, Som ham awer mun wai wied darfo, so hains Far ham, a de gier ham weh, iun hen à folit ham on a Hals à ge ham solt De Són awer so te ham. "Far a her gier Uiet i Him mere à for da, a a ei no ikke bet wår à jr din Son" Awei de Far so te jin a hains Swenn "Tai den beest Kled hiei a tiae ham o, à gie ham en Fingering à hains Hoam, a Sko te hains Fóie, à tiae et fett Kalle hiei, a slagtei á la woss ar à war glai

Platt-Deutsch

En Mann har twee Söhns Un de jongst van se seeg to sien Vader "Gev mi, Vader, dat Deel van dat God, wat mi to hoit" Un he deelt 'se dat God to. Un nich lang darnah nehm de jongt Sohn alt to hoap un trock wiet ówer Land un dasulm breek he sien God ma Prassen dohr As he nu all dat siene vertahrt har, da warr 'ne grot duer Tid dohr dat sulwige Land, un he fung an Nood to hieden Un he gmg hen un verhuei sik bi en Eóiger van datsulwigge Land, un de schickt' em op sien Feld, de Swien to hoiden Un he wull sien Bunk med de Sei full'n, de de Swen freten, un numms grev se em Da slog he in si un sprok "Vo veel Daglohner het mien Vader, de Brod g'nog hebb'n, un ik veidarf in Hunger Ick will un opmaken un to mien Vader gahn un to em seggen 'Vader' ick heff sunnigt in Himmel, un var di un ick bun nu nich mehr werth, dat ick dien Sohn heete, maak mi as en van dien Daglohnern" Un he maakt si op un kom to sien Vader As he awerst noch wiet af weer, seg em sien Vader, un he duet 'em, leip un feel em om sien Hals w kusst em

Hymn.

1

Kjære Guj, æ takker dæ,
Fo den-hjer go Dav,
Men host do it hjulpen mæ,
Hoo var æ bleven av?

2.

Do gast mæ Klæer te mit Lyv,
Gast mæ dayle Brye,
Do gast mæ Glæer tusenvus
Bevarst mæ fiaa aa dye.

3

Hold no i den-hjer soet Nat
 Din Haend aa over mæ,
 Saa æ sin mon-aal aa ny
 Kan, Faer, takle dæ

4

Min skuld de væi den seest Nat,
 Æ loover hei aa Jord.
 Saa tæg mæ i din Himmel op
 Hvo din Engle boe

English.

1

Dear God, I thank thee
 For this-here good day,
 But haddest Thou not helped me,
 How had I been gone through it "

2

Thou gavest me clothes to my body,
 Gavest me daily bread.
 Thou gavest me gladnesses thousand-wise,
 Preservedst me from death

3

Hold, now, in this-here swarthy night.
 Thine hand aye over me,
 So I the morning-early anew
 Can, Father, thank Thee

4

But should it be the latest night
 I live here on earth,
 So take me in thy heaven up,
 Where thy angels dwell'

CHAPTER XXVI.

ELEMENTS OF THE ANGLE INVASION.—FRANKS IN KENT.

§ 146. There may have been Franks in Kent as well as Goths.
 One fact in favour of such having been the case lies in—

(a) The extract from Mamertinus in § 15.

(b) The name *Kent*.

This is no compound of the word *Seaxe* or *Saxon*, like *Sus-sex*, *Es-sex*, &c—though the county abuts upon districts so named. Hence, the easiest way of accounting for the words in *-sex*, and their limitation to the south of England, is to suppose that they were the names by which the districts which bore them were known in Kent,—the Franks being the population who, of all the Germans, most eschewed the use of the word

Angle and most used the word *Saxon* *Saxon* was a name which a Frank population would give to its neighbours, even if they were *Angle* in the strictest sense of the term. If a Frank had given a name to even *East-Anglian* Suffolk, it would have been *Es-sex*.

(c) The name *Hlothære*, as that of a king of Kent, is eminently Frank, and not at all Angle.

(d) Kent is divided into *Lathes*—The Latin term *Lati* was a word belonging to the military nomenclature of Rome during the fourth century, as well as earlier and later. It applied to the parts opposite Britain—viz Gaul and Western Germany. It denoted a certain kind of military retainers; the service in which they were being the Roman Julian, in Ammianus (xx. 8) writes of them thus:—"Equos præbebo Hispanos, et miscendos gentilibus atque scutariis adolescentes *Lætos* quosdam, eis Rhenum editam barbarorum progeniem, vel certe ex deditiis, qui ad nostra desuescunt." Zosimus gives the form *Λετοί*. He speaks of the emperor as being a barbarian by blood, who by residence amongst the *Λετοί*, a Gallic nation, acquired some Latin cultivation (2, 54)—*Μαγνέντιος, γένος μὲν ἑλκων ἀπὸ βαρβάρων, μετοικήσας δὲ εἰς Λετοῖς, ἔθνος Γαλατικὸν, παιδείας τῆς Λατίνων μετασχών*. The *Frank* *Læti* were settled by Maximianus, as we learn from Eumenius (*Panegyric. Constant. Cæs. A.D. 296*).—"Tuo—natu Nerviorum et Treverorum arva jacentia *Læti* postliminio restitutus et receptus in leges *Francus* excoluit" The *Notitia* has a long list of them:—

Præfectus *Latorum* Teutonicarum, Carnunto Senoniæ Lugdunensis

Præfectus *Latorum* Batavorum et gentium Suevorum, *Bayocas* : et Constantiæ Lugdunensis secundæ

Præfectus *Latorum* gentium Suevorum, Cenomannos Lugdunensis tertiæ

Præfectus *Latorum Francorum*, Redonas Lugdunensis tertiæ

Præfectus *Latorum* Lingonensium, per divisa dispensorum Belgicæ primæ

Præfectus *Latorum* Actorum, Epuso Belgicæ primæ.

Præfectus *Latorum* Nerviorum, Fanomartis Belgicæ secundæ

Præfectus *Latorum* Batavorum Nemetacensium, Atrebatibus Belgicæ secundæ

Præfectus *Latorum* Batavorum Coniagnensium, Noviomago Belgicæ secundæ

Præfectus *Latorum* gentium, Remos et Silvanectas Belgicæ secundæ.

Præfectus *Latorum* Lagensium, prope Tungros Germaniæ secundæ

Præfectus *Latorum* gentium Suevorum, Arvenos Aquitanæ primæ

* Observe the word *Bayocas*=Bayeux

Zeuss (*v Leti*); to whom all the texts that have been laid before the reader are due, concludes with a notice touching the question of the Kentish *luthes* most closely. The Theodosian Code states "That the lands appointed to the *Lati*, who were removed to them, were called *terrae Laticae*" Such a word, then, as *luthe* may have grown out of (*terra*) *Latica*. That such existed in Romano-Keltic Gaul has been shown abundantly. That they also existed in Romano-Keltic Britain (especially in the parts nearest to Gaul) is probable

CHAPTER XXVII.

ELEMENTS OF THE ANGLE INVASION — FRISIANS

§ 147. DID any other German populations, *under their own name*, join the Angle invasions? Did any of them do so under the general name of *Angle* or *Saxon*? Did any of them effect any independent settlements?

§ 148 *The Frisians* — (a) Procopius writes that three very populous nations occupied Britain, the Angles, the Britons, and the Frisians

(b) The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle, under the year 897, runs thus —

Ðy ilcan geara dæhton the heigas on East-Englum and on Norð-hymbium West-Seaxna lond swiðe be þem suð-staðe mid stal-heigum ealra swiðust mid þam æscunfe hie fela geara ær timbiedon Ða het Alhed cyng timbrian lang scipu ougen þa æ-cas þa wæron fulneah tu swa lange swa þa oðru, sume hæfdon lx. ara, sume ma, þa wæron ægðer ge switrian ge unwealtian ge eac hieian þonne þa oðru Næron [hie] naþer ne on Friesisc gescæpene, ne on Demisc, bute swa hnn selium þulite þat hie nyt-wiðoste beon meahiten Ða æt sumum eare þæs ilcan geares comon þær sex scipu to Wilt, and þær mycel æfel gedrydon ægðer ge on Dfeanum ge wel hroi be þam sæ iman Ða het se cyng faran mid nigonum to þara mæna scipa, and forforon him þone muðan foran on utere mere Ða foron hie med þim scipum ut ongen hie, and þeo stolon at utewearðum þam muðan on drygum wæron þa men uppe on londe of agane Ða gefengon hie þara þeora scipa tu æt þara muðan utewearðum and þa men ofslogon and fæt an oðwand on þam wæron eac þa men ofslagene buton fifum þa comon for þy onweg þe þara oðeina scipu asæton Ða wurdan eac, swiðe unseðlice asæton Ðreo asæton on þa healfes þæs deapæs þe þa Demiscan scipu aseten wæron, and þa oðru ealle on oðre healfes þat hna ne mihte nan to oðrum Ac þa þæt wæter was ahebbad fela fullanga from scipum þa eodon þa Demiscan from þam þrim scipum to þam oðrum þrim þe on hira healfes bebbade wæron and hie þa þær gefuliton Ðær wearð ofslagen

Lucumon cynges geiefa, and Wulfheald Friesa, and Æbbe Friesa, and Ædelberg Friesa, and Athoferð c gyngeseneat, and edbia monna Friesiscia and Engliscia lxxi, and þara Demiscena cxx

In English From Monumenta Britannica

The aimes from among the East-Anglians and from among the North-Humbrians, harassed the land of the West-Saxons chiefly, most of all by their *æscs*, which they had built many years before. Then King Alfred commanded long ships to be built to oppose the *æscs*, they were full-mgh twice as long as the others; some had sixty oars, and some had more, they were both swifter and steadier, and also higher than the others. They were shapen neither like the Frisian nor the Danish, but so as it seemed to him that they would be most efficient. Then some time in the same year, there came six ships to Wight, and there did much harm, as well as in Devon, and elsewhere along the sea-coast. Then the king commanded nine of the new ships to go thither, and they obstructed their passage from the port towards the outer sea. Then went they with three of their ships out against them, and three lay in the upper part of the port in the dry, the men were gone from them ashore. Then took they two of the three ships at the outer part of the port, and killed the men, and the other ship escaped, in that also the men were killed except five, they got away because the other ships were aground. They also were aground very disadvantageously, three lay aground on that side of the deep on which the Danish ships were aground, and all the rest upon the other side, so that no one of them could get to the others. But when the water had ebbed many furlongs from the ships, the Danish men went from their three ships to the other three which were left by the tide on their side, and then they there fought against them. There was slain Lucumon the king's reeve, and Wulfheald the Frisian and Æbbe the Frisian, and Æthelhere the Frisian, and Æthelfeith the king's *geneat*, and of all the men, Frisians and English, seventy-two, and of the Danish men one hundred and twenty.

Of the Chauci, Lombards, and Early Danes, notice will be taken in the sequel.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

RELATIONS OF THE ENGLISH TO THE LANGUAGES OF GERMANY IN GENERAL.

§ 149. THREE German forms of speech have been specially noticed—the Old Saxon, the Angle, and the Frisian. But they are only three out of many. Again, forms of speech such as the Frank, the Thuringian, &c, have been named. So have forms of speech called Norse, Icelandic, or Scandinavian.

All this means that, just as the English is one division of a

group containing the Old Saxon and the Frisian besides, so may the Old Saxon and the Frisian, along with the English, constitute a division of some higher group or genus.

Which of the members of this same group or genus shall we take first—the Frisian, the Angle, and the Old Saxon having already been considered?

§ 150 These *diverged*, i. e. the Frisian led in one direction, the Old Saxon in another.

Each of these tongues was conterminous with some other member of the German division, some known member with which we could compare it. The Anglo-Saxon, on the other hand, had such portions of its frontier as have not already been under treatment—such portions of its frontier as were neither Frisian nor Old Saxon—either Slavonic (and, as such, not German at all), or else North Hessian and Thuringian. Hence, it was only in the direction of those two forms of speech that it could graduate into any other member its class.

But the early forms of the North Hessian and North Thuringian are as unknown as the southern forms of the Angle.

Hence—the two *outside* and *osculant* languages (so to say), the languages that lead to other members of their class, are the Frisian and Old Saxon.

Of these the former points to Scandinavia; the latter to Southern Germany.

The former leads to the Icelandic, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian, and Feroic, the latter to the Platt-Deutsch, and High-German—also to the Mæso-Gothic.

Whether we begin with the Frisian or the Old Saxon we come to the same class of dialects. These are, on the south and south-west of the Old Saxon and Frisian frontiers the Dutch of Holland, and on the south and south-east the numerous Platt-Deutsch forms of speech of Westphalia and the Lower Rhine.

§ 151. *The Dutch of Holland*—Nearly akin to the English, and still more nearly akin to the Frisian on its northern, and the Platt-Deutsch of Westphalia on its eastern, frontier is the Dutch of Holland, of which the Flemish of Belgium is only a modification. South of the Flemish frontier comes the French of Artois and Picardy, no German tongue at all; but one belonging to another class of languages. The Dutch of Holland extends into Germany, the dialects of part of Cleves on the east, and of East Friesland on the north, being more Dutch than Platt-Deutsch.

The Dutch of Holland falls into dialects and sub-dialects, *e g* the Groningen, the Guelderland, the Zealand, the Brabant, &c.

The *stages* of the Dutch of Holland are somewhat indistinct. Samples of any dialect of the Seven Provinces of equal antiquity with the oldest Frisian, the oldest Old Saxon, and the Anglo-Saxon there are none. On the other hand the Old Frisian and Old Saxon are closely akin to what such specimens would be if they existed—indeed it has already been stated, that more than one scholar has dealt with the *Carolinian Psalms* as if they were Old Dutch

§ 152. The earliest important work in the true Dutch of Holland is the Chronicle of Melis Stoke, about A. D. 1300

Specimen

MARK, chap. 1.

1. Het begin des evangelies van Jesus Christus, den Zoon van God
- 2 Gelyk geschreven is in de Profeten ziet, Ik zend mynen Engel voor uw aangezicht, die uwen weg voor u heen bereiden zal
- 3 De stem des roependen in de woestijn bereidt den weg des Heeren, maakt zijne paden regt¹
4. Johannes was doopende in de woestijn, en predikende den doop der bekeering tot vergeving der zonden
- 5 En al het Joodsche land gung tot hem uit, en die vad Jeruzalem, en werden allen van hem gedoopt in the rivier de Jordaen, beijdende hunne zonden
- 6 En Johannes was gekleed met kemelshaar, en met eenen lederen gordel om zijne lendenen, en et sprinkhanen en wilden hong
- 7 En hy predikte, zeggende na my komt, die steiker is dan ik, wien ik niet waardig ben, nederbukkende, den niem zijner schoenen te ontfamen
- 8 Ik heb uheden wel gedoopt met water, maar hy zal u doopen met den Heiligen Geest

§ 153 *The Platt-Deutsch Dialects*—*Platt* means *Broad* or *Flat* For some reason or other it has become current as a term in German philology. The Germans of Suabia, Franconia, and the countries on the *upper* parts of the Rhine, Weser, and Oder, thus denominate the dialects of the *Lower* Rhine, the *Lower* Weser, the *Lower* Oder, the *Lower* Vistula, &c.

Such is the meaning of the word in its narrower and more limited sense—the meaning which it takes in the mouth of an ordinary German who names the dialects of his country according to the current nomenclature.

But there is a wider meaning as well. Each and all of the languages that have up to the present time commanded our attention are not only German, but German with special Platt-Deutsch affinities Thus the Frisian, the Dutch of Holland, the

Anglo-Saxon, the English, and the Old Saxon are all liker to the dialects of the Lower Rhine, the Lower Weser, &c., than they are to the Suabian, the Franconian, the Bavarian, &c.

This engenders a complication. Sometimes the word means some particular dialect of Westphalia, Oldenburgh, Hanover, Holstein, Sleswick, Mecklenburgh, &c., to the exclusion of the English, Frisian, and Dutch of Holland, and sometimes it means the English, Dutch, Westphalian, &c., collectively. Hence, it is correct to say, that the language of Overysel or of Guelderland is Dutch rather than Platt-Deutsch, Dutch like the literary language of Holland, rather than any provincial dialect of Westphalia. And it is also correct to say that the English of England is a Platt-Deutsch form of speech.

All this is correct. Whether it be convenient is another matter.

In the present work *Platt-Deutsch* (the German term) will represent the provincial dialects of Northern Germany—the provincial dialects of the *Lower* (and Middle) Rhine, Weser, Oder, &c., whereas the more generic expression for the group containing the English, &c., will be *Low-German*, *i. e.* the German of the *Lower* course of the Rhine, &c.

Hence there is a *Platt-Deutsch* sub-section of the *Low-German* section.

I cannot give (either geographically or philologically) an exact line of demarcation between the southern Platt-Deutsch and the northern High-German divisions. I cannot even say in which quarter the relationship is the closest, *i. e.* whether the most like forms of the Dutch of Holland and of the Platt-Deutsch of Westphalia are liker each other than the likest dialects of the Platt-Deutsch and High-German. Such divisions, however, are often drawn. Few writers make the Hessian of the middle parts of Hesse other than High-German. Yet, it contains more than one of the so-called Low-German characteristics.

§ 154 The points connected with the Platt-Deutsch which are the most certain, and not the least important, are the following:—

1. It is more High-German than any of the forms of speech hitherto noticed—more High-German than the Old Saxon, the Anglo-Saxon, the Dutch, the Frisian. Hence—

2. Its original *situs* is to the south of those forms of speech, *i. e.* on the High-German frontier. No one has ever said

that any of the above-named languages graduate into the Franconian, or the Hessian; many have said that some of the Rhenish forms of the Platt-Deutsch do.

3. From this it spread northward and north-eastwards—the Franks of the Carolinian period being its chief propagators, and the districts it invaded being Westphalia, Oldenburg, Hanover, Altmark, Brunswick, Lauenburg, Holstein, Sleswick, Mecklenburg, Pomerania, West Prussia, East Prussia, Courland, Livonia, Esthonia (these last imperfectly)

To all these countries it was originally foreign—the native languages being—

1. In Westphalia, Oldenburg, Hanover, Brunswick, and part of Holstein, the Old and Anglo-Saxon.

2. In Lauenburg, part of Holstein, Altmark, Luneburg, Mecklenburg, and Pomerania, the Slavonic

3. In West (?) and East Prussia, Courland, and South Livonia, either the Lithuanic or the Lett.

4. In North Livonia and Esthonia (German being spoken at Reval, and even at Dorpat), the Fin of Esthonia.

To these add the original districts from which it was diffused, which I hold to have been the parts on the Lower and Middle Rhine about Cologne, and you have the vast area of the Platt-Deutsch of Germany—the descendant of the Carolinian (or Carolingian) Frank

§ 155. The *stages* of the Platt-Deutsch are equally obscure with those of the Dutch of Holland—more so. Of the different forms of it, as spoken at the present moment, there are abundant specimens, specimens of which the collection of Firmenich* is a rich repertorium. But the analogues of the Anglo-Saxon, the analogues of the Old and Middle English, are scarce, in some cases non-existent.

Linear descendants of Old Saxon forms of speech we have none. They were displaced on the spot where they were spoken by the Carolinian Frank. But this was not written and preserved until a comparatively late period—later in some parts than in others. I cannot say when and where, for each particular portion of the present Platt-Deutsch area, the earliest extant specimen was put to paper, and handed down. I believe

* Firmenich *Volkenstammen Germaniens*.

it was in the parts about Hamburg, Lubeck, &c. As a general rule, however, we may state that the forms of speech of that part of the present Platt-Deutsch area, which, without being Frank, was originally German, have left no modern representatives, and that the Frank which displaced them is not known in any old form—i. e. no form cotemporary with the Anglo-Saxon, or Old Frisian.

§ 156. But there was the *original* Frank area, the part of Germany where the form of speech took birth, and whence it spread. What have we here? What have we for the Lower and Middle Rhine, for South-Western Westphalia? Nothing which is at one and the same time sufficiently definite to represent a separate substantive division, and also of high antiquity. The *Gospel Harmony* of Tatian is generally called *Frank* (*Francie*), but it has much which is more High-German than Platt-Deutsch.

§ 157. Again, *Hillebrand and Hathubrand* is a short and, apparently, a fragmentary poem, in alliterative metre, concerning two heroes, father and son, of the times of Diedrich of Berne (Theodoric of Verona) and Otacher (Odoacer). It is held, by Grimm, to be Old Saxon, in the hands of a Frank copyist. It is, apparently, a transitional form of speech. The text is given in the chapter on Prosody.

§ 158. The following is genuine and undoubted Platt-Deutsch :—

Hyn begynnet de fundacie wo de Kercke vnd dat Kloster des Stluctes tho Ffickenhoist erst ys wunderlyckn van der genade Godes getymnert

In den tyden als regerde de Aller Doeluchtigeste Konynek und Keyser Lodewych de Junge, was eyne weithlick man genempt Euueiwoirdus. He was hullich van leuen, vnde schone van dogheden. He was ock na stat der welt van gheboirt eyne van den alder edelsten. He nam eyne huffiowen en name was geheiten Geua. Se was schone van lyue un klock van synne mylde, tho der armoet, dat er gude geiochte wart verbredet ouer dat gansse lant. All was se vruchtende den Heeren und beynede em seer truweluck dach vnd nacht. Welker Euueiwoirdus vnde Geua hedden vele huss gesynnes knechte vnd meghede. Se hedden ock vntellick gud van eiffynsse, lant, holt, golt vnd suluer, van perden, koyen, swyne, vn schapen, &c., dat em was geeruet van eien olderen. Nycht de myn, se en droghen vnd verleiten sick nicht vp dat grote Gud. Mer se deyneden beide Gode, in groten vruchten. Snte Paulus secht de Hilge Apostell, "als nycht hebbende weren se all dyck besittende."

Here begins the foundation, when the church and the cloister of the Saint at Fickenhoist, was first wonderfully by the grace of God built.

In the time when there reigned the most noble King and Keyser, Lodewick the Young, was a worthy man named Everward. He was holy of life, and fair

in actions He was also after the fashion of the world, in both one of the noblest He took a wife whose name was called Geva He was beautiful of body, and wise of mind, mild in spirit, that his good fame was spread abroad over the whole land Nevertheless, he was fearing the Lord and served him very faithfully, very truly day and night The same Everward and Geva had many man-servants and maid-servants in their household They also had innumerable goods of inheritance, land, wood, gold and silver, of horses, cows, swine and sheep, that is inherited from the ancestors Nevertheless, they departed not from the great God But they both served God in great fear St Paul, the holy Apostle, says, "Though having nothing, they possessed all things"

Specimen

Detmar's Chronicle, A.D. 1386

In demesulven Jare schach den van Lubeke schaden an 10ve alse in Perden dat deden Godendorpes Deme unde Hulpere Der worden en del begiepen unde worden henget vor Lubeke Darna schach, dat desulven Stratenrovere hadden des nachtes genomen to ene Doipe, dat het Kurowe, unde hadden enen Bur darsulves dot geslagen Des weren de Vogede van Lubeke unde van Molne uppe den velde De Voget van Lubeke was en wolboren Man van Ridderen unde Knechten, unde heet Henneke Schaipenbeich, de van Molne was en beive Man, unde heet Wendelbarn Do se dat Ruchte vornemen, do volgeden se den Moireren unde Statemoveren, id was Nacht unde kunden nene Slawe holden Des ghat dan die Wege in dat Land to Holsten, dar de Misdedeie ute komen weren, de den Schaden dan hadden aldus besenden de Vogede twe Wege, in deme dridden volgeden se sulven

§ 159. *The High-German*.—By taking extreme forms we may easily get High-German specimens which differ visibly from the Platt-Deutsch.

We may get this from two quarters, *i.e.* either from the literary language of the present Germans and their forerunners, or from the more extreme provincial dialects, *e.g.* the Bavarian, or the Swiss.

How far is the literary High-German of the present time a real language, or how far is it a language of the author and the schoolmaster?

In the work of Firmenich, already quoted, there is no part of Germany of the size of the county of Leicester, without a sample of its dialect. Yet it is safe to say that none of these approaches the written language so closely as the ordinary language of Huntingdon and Northampton approaches the written English

Again,—ask in Germany where the best German is spoken—*best* meaning the *highest* The answer is, in Hanover or Brunswick—Platt-Deutsch districts.

§ 160.

Literary High-German

I

FROM LESSING'S FABLES.

HERKULES

Als Herkules in den Himmel aufgenommen ward machte er seinen Gruss unter allen Gottern der Juno zuerst. Der ganze Himmel und Juno erstaunte darüber. „Deiner Feindin, rief man ihm zu, ‘begegnest du so vorzüglich?’“ „Ja, ihr selbst,“ erwiderte Herkules. „Nur ihre Verfolgungen sind es, die mich zu den Thaten Gelegenheit gegeben, womit ich den Himmel verdienet habe.“

Der Olymp billigte die Antwort des neuen Gottes, und Juno ward versöhnt.

In English

As Heracles in the Heaven up-taken was, made he his greeting, under (among) all Gods, to Juno at (to) first. The whole Heaven and Juno were astonished thereon (over). “Thy female enemy (fiend,)” cried they him to, “metest thou so preferably?” “Yes, herself,” answered Hercules, “only her persecutions are it, which me to the deeds opportunity (have) given, wherewith I the Heaven earned have.”

The Olympus approved the answer of the new God, and Juno was reconciled.

2

FROM HERDER

Horch hoch die Leich' am Himmelsthu' singt,
 Die hebe Sonn' wacht auf,
 Aus allen Blunkelchen tunkt
 Sie schon ihr Opfer auf
 Das Hochzeitkospfchen freundlich winkt,
 Und thut sein Auglein auf,
 Was hold und lieb ist, freundlich blinkt,
 Wach schönes Kind wach auf,
 Wach auf,
 Wach schönes Kind wach auf

This is a translation from the song in *Cymbeline*:—

Hark! the lark at Heaven's gate sings,
 The sun begins to rise
 His steed to water at those springs,
 On chalice'd flowers that lies
 And winking May-buds begin,
 To ope their golden eyes,
 And everything that pretty bin,
 My Ladye sweet arise,
 Arise,
 My Ladye sweet arise

Literally

Hark! Hark! the lark at Heaven's door sings,
 The dear (love) Sun wakes up,

Out of all bloom-chalices drinks

She (the *sun*, which is feminine) already then offering up,

The batchelor's button friendly looks

And does its eye-ling up (=opens little eye)

What gracious and dear is friendly winks,

Wake, fair child, wake up.

Wake up, &c

From the New Testament, MARK 1 1-8

1 Diess ist der Anfang des Evangelii von Jesu Christo, dem Sohne Gottes

2 Als geschrieben stehet in den Propheten, Siehe, "Ich sende meinen Engel vor du her, der da bereite demen Weg vor du "

3 Es ist eine Stimme eines Predigers in der Wüste "Bereitet den Weg des Herrn, machet seine Steige richtig "

4 Johannes der war in der Wüste, taufte und predigte von der Taufe der Busse, zur Vergebung der Sunden

5 Und es gieng zu ihm hinaus das ganze Judische Land, und die von Jerusalem, und Hessen sich alle von ihm taufen im Jordan, und bekannten ihre Sunden

6 Johannes aber war bekleidet mit Kameelshaaren, und mit einem ledernen Gurtel um seine Lenden, und ass Heuschrecken und wilden Honig,

7 Und predigte und sprach. "Es kommt einer nach mir, der ist starker," "denn ich, dem ich nicht genugsam bin, dass ich mich vor ihm bucke, und die Riemen seiner Schuhe auflose

8 "Ich taufe euch mit Wasser, aber er wird euch mit dem heiligen Geiste taufen "

§ 161. The Old High-German, called also Francic and Alemannic, was spoken in the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries, in Suabia, Bavaria, and Franconia. It is in the Old High-German that the *Krist* of Otfrid, the *Psalms* of Notker, the *Canticle* of Willeram, the *Glosses* of Kero, the *Vita Annonis*, &c, are composed.

Specimen

KRIST, i 12 (Edit Graff)

The uuarun thar in lante hurta haltente

Thes fehes datun uuanta uuadai fianta

Zi in quam boto scom, engl scmenti,

Joh uuuntun sie inliuhte fon humilsgen hohte

Forahtun sie in tho gahun so sinan anasahun,

Joh hintarquamun harto thes Gotes boten uuorto

Spriah thei Gotes boto sar "Ih scal iú sagen uuuntar

Ju scal sin fon Gote heil, nales forahtha nihein

Ih scal iu sagen umbot, gibot thei humilsgo Got,

Ouh nist thei ei ghohti so fionisg arunti.

Thes uuundit uuoiolt sinu zi euuodon blidu,

Joh al giscatt thru in uuoiolti thesa eidun ist ouh dretenti

Nuum boian habet thiz lant then humilsgon Heilant,

The ist Drihtin Kríst guater fon iungeiu muater

In Bethelem thuë kunnga thie uuarun alle thanana.
 Fon in uuand ouh griboran in sin muoter magad sconu
 Sagen ih in guate mah. uuno in nan sculut findan,
 Zeichen ouh gizamm thuruu thaz seltsam
 Zi theru beigi fareit hunana, in findet, so ih in sageia,
 Kind muuu boianaz in kripphün gilegitaz "
 Tho quam unz ei zin tho sprah englo heinscaf,
 Hunnigü mengi. sus alle singenti—
 ' In hünriches hohi si Gote guallichu ,
 Si in eidu findu ouh allen thie fol sin guates uuellen "

The Same, in English

Then there was in the land herdsmen feeding
 Of then cattle they made watch against foes
 To them came a messenger far, an angel shining,
 And they became lit with heavenly light
 They feared, suddenly as on him they looked,
 And followed much the words of God's messenger
 Spake there God's messenger stait, " I shall to you say wonders
 To you shall there be from God health, fear nothing at all
 I shall to you say a message the bidding of the heavenly God
 Also there is none who has heard so glad an errand
 Therefore becomes his world for ever blythe,
 And all creatures that in the world are treading this earth,
 Newly borne has this land the heavenly Saviour,
 Who is the Lord Christ, good, from a young mother
 In Bethleem, of the kings they were all thence—
 From them was also born his mother, a maid fan
 I say to you, good men, how ye him shall find,
 A sign and token, through this wonder
 To you bough fare hence, ye find, so as I to you said,
 A child, new born, in a crib lying "
 Then came, while he to them spake, of angels a host,
 A heavenly retinue, thus all singing
 " In the heavenly kingdom's height be to God glory,
 Be on earth peace also to all who are full of God's will "

§ 162 The Middle High-German ranges from the thirteenth century to the Reformation.

Specimen

Der Nibelungen Not. St. 20-24 (Ed. Lachmann)

Dô wuohs in Niderlanden eins richen küneges kint,
 Des vater hiez Sigemunt, sin muoter Sigehnt,
 In einer buge riche witen wol bekant,
 Niden bi dem Rine, du was ze Santem genant.

Ich sage iu von dem degne, wie schœne der wart
 Sin lip vor allen schanden was vil wol bewart
 Stark unde mære wart sit der kuene man—
 Hey waz er grozer êien ze diser welde gewan.

Sifit was gehæizen dei selbe degen guot,
 Ei versuchte vil der rîche durch ellenthaften muot
 Durch sinæs libes sterke ient ei in menegum lant,
 Hey waz ei snellei degne ze den Bugonden vant

In sînen besten zîten, bi sînen jungen tagen,
 Man mhte michel wunder von Sifide sagen,
 Waz êien an im wuelise und wie schône was sîn lip
 Sît heten in ze minne duu vil wætlichen wip

§ 163. *The Mæso-Gothic*—The Goths who sacked Rome under Alaric, and who succeeded to the empire of Augustulus under Theodoric, were of German origin, and the language that they spoke was German also. It is called the Mæso-Gothic

Of this language we have a specimen, not later than the fourth century; and as no Anglo-Saxon work is of equal antiquity, the Mæso-Gothic is considered to be the oldest of all the German tongues. The meaning of the word will be understood by following the course of the Danube, till we reach the Roman province of Mœsia. The *earliest* inhabitants of this province were not akin to any of the tribes of Germany, any more than the original Britons of England were akin to the Anglo-Saxon invaders. Before the end, however, of the second century they were conquered by tribes from the south-eastern parts of Germany. These were called Goths, or, more specifically, the Goths of Mœsia

Specimen

MARK, chap. i.

- 1 ANASTODEINS aivaggeljons iesus xiïstauss sunaus guþs
- 2 Sve gamelþ ist in esai in þraufetan sai ik insandja agglu meimana faura þus saei gamanveþ vig þeimana faura þus.
3. Stibna vopjandins in auþidai manveþ vig flaujns iashtos vaurkeiþ stargos guþs unsaris
- 4 Vas iohannes dauþjands in auþidai jah meijands dauþem idiegos du aflagenai fiavauihte
- 5 Jah usiddjedun du imma all iudaialand jah iauusaulymeis jah dauþidai vesun allai in iauidane avai fiam imma andhantandans fiavauihtim semam
- 6 Vasuþ-þan iohannes gavasips taglam ulbandaus jah gauda fillema bi hup seinana jah mati da þiamstems jah miþ harþivisk jah meida qþands
- 7 Qumiþ svinþoza mis sa afar mis þizei ik ni im vauþs anahnervands andbundan skaudaraip skohe is aþþan ik dauþja izvis in vatn
- 8 Ip is dauþeiþ izvis in ahmin veihamma
9. Jah vauþ in jamaum dagam qam iesus fiam nazaraip galeilæas jah dauþiþ vas fram iohanne in iauidane

10 Jah suns usgaggands us þamma vatin gasaw usluknans hummans jah hannan sve abak at-aggandans ana ma

11 Jah -abba qam us humman þu is suns meins sa liuba in þuze vaila galeikala

12 Jah suns sa alama ma u-stauh in autida

13 Jah vas in þizai auþai dagi fidvortiguns fairsans fram satauin jah vas miþ duzain jah agyleis andbaitidedun nama

14 Ip afai þatei atgibans vaþ iohannes qam iesus in galileia merjands airaggelþon þudangardjos guþs qþands þatei usfullnoda pata mel

15 Jah ataevida sik þudangardi guþs

16 Ideigop jah galaubeiþ in airaggelþon. jah waibourds faui maiein galeil-
aas gasaw semmonu jah andiaian bioþai is þis semmons vaupan laus nati
in maiein vesum auk fisljans

17 Jah qap in iesus lujats afar mis jah gatauja igqis vanþan nutans maune

18 Jah suns aftandans þo natja sema laistidedun afai imma

19 Jah jampio muþaggands fiansis leiti gasaw iakobi þana zaibardaus
jah iohannu bioþai is jah þuns in skipa manvjandans natja

20 Jah suns harhait ins jah aftandans attan semana zaibardau in þamma
skipa miþ asnjam galþou afai imma jah galþun in katmanum

21 Jah suns sabbato daga galeiþands in synagogen laisida ins jah usfilmans
vaupun ana þizai laisida is

22 Unte vas lausjands ins sve valdufu habands jah in svasve þai bokarjos

23 Jah vas in þizai synagogen ize manna in unþiamjamma ahmin jah
ufþiopia qþands fialct

24 Wa uns jah þus iesu nazorenai. qamt fraqstjan uns kann þuk vas þu
is sa veihja guþs

25 Jah andbait ma iesus qþands þahai jah usgagg ut us þamma ahma
unþiamja

26 Jah taluþa ma ahma sa unþiamja jah hioþands stibnai mikilai usiddja
us imma

27 Jah afslauþnodedun allai sildaleikjandans svaei sokidedun miþ sis
misso qþandans wa syai þata wo so laiseino so mujo ei miþ valdufija
jah ahmam þam unþiamjam anabiudþ jah ufhausjand imma

28 Usiddja þan meirþa is suns and allans bisitands galeilias

29 Jah suns us þizai synagogen usgaggandans qcmun in gaida semmons jah
andiauns miþ iokobai jah iohannem

30 Ip svailno semmons log in bimmon jah suns qeþun imma bi þja.

31 Jah duatgaggands uraisida þo undgreipands handu izos

32 Jah affailot þo so bimmo suns jah andbaitida in andanahtja þan
vaupanamma þan gasagg saul beun du nama allansþans ubil habandans
jah unhulþons habandans

33 Jah so baugs alla garunnana vas at dauia

34 Jah galahtida managos ubil habandans missaleikami sauhtim jah unhul-
þons managos usvarp jah in fialailot iodjan þos unhulþons unte kun-
þedun ma

35 Jah air ulitron usstandans usiddja jah galaþ ana auþjana stap jah
jamar baþ

36 Jah galaistans vaupun imma seimon jah þai miþ imma

37 Jah bigtandans ma qeþun du imma þatei allai þuk sokjand

38 Jah qap du in gaggam du þam bisunjane hamon jah baugim ei
jah jamar merjau. unte duþe qam.

39 Jah vas merjands in synagogum ize and alla galelæan jah unhulpons usvaupands

40 Jah qam at imma þrutsfill habands biðjands ma jah knivam knussjands jah qþands imma þatei jabai vileis magt mik gahaijam

41 Ip iesus infemands uhaljands handu sema attatok imma jah dāp imma viljau vanþ hians

42 Jah biþe qāþ þata iesus suns þata þrutsfill affaiþ af imma jah hians vanþ

43 Jah gawotjands imma suns ussandida ma jah qāþ du imma.

44 Saiv ei mannhun ni dþais vaiht ak gagg þuk silban ataugjan gudjum jah atban fiam gahaiemai þemai þatei anabaup mores du veitvotþai im

45 Ip is usgaggands dugann meijan filu jah usqþan þata vauid swasve is juþan ni mahta andaugjo in baug galeiþan ak uta ana auþjam stadim vas jah iddjedun du imma allaiþio

To the first eight verses the following notes apply. The remainder may be made out by reference to the chapter from which the extract is taken.

MÆSO-GOTHIC.

Anastodeins, beginning, lit, up-standing—*ga-melþ*, written, painted, German, *mahlen*=*paint* The *ga* is the sign of the participle, one word in English preserves it, viz *γ-clept*=*called*, A S *clepan*=*to call*—*aggibu*, ἄγγελος—*gamanveiþ*, prepare—*stibna*, voice, German, *stimme*—*vopjanduns*, crying, weep-ing,—*aupulur*, German, *oh*=*uaste* *Fannus*, of the Lord, one of the many Slavonic words in Ulfphilas=*Pan*=*dominus*—*staugos*, ways=German, *steig*, Danish, *str*=*way*—*daupjands*, baptize=*dy*—*meijands*, proclaiming, preaching—*idreigos*, repentance This has been looked upon as a Keltic word *aflegema*, away-laying, *fiarawhtē*, of suns, *foreworks*, the *fore*, as in *forswear*—*usiddjedun*, out-god, out-yode—*auar*, water, *iver*, *aha*, Old German, *aa*, Noise—*andhurdanduns*, and=coram, *hant*=*ioco*, as in *hight*=*is called*, *beius* the name =*proclaiming*, confessing, *garusisþs*, clothed, from *rasjan*=*to clothe*—*taglam*, han (word for word), *tail*, *tagel*, A S—*ulbandaus* (word for word) *elephant*—*gaurda filleina*—*fell* (as in *fell-monger*), *gudle*—*hup*, hips—*þamsteins*, twigs (such the translation, not *grasshoppers*)—*mileþ* *haiþurisk*, heath-honey, *qipandis*, saying (*queathing*, as in *quothe*, *bequeathe*)—*swinþoza*, stronger, A S *surþ*=*very* Comparative in *z* (s) *Sa*=*who*, *anahneivands*, stooping, bending (*kneeling*), —*skauda-iarp*, latchet, *izis*, you, *vatin*, water, Lithuanian *wandu*, Danish, *iand*, Swedish, *vatin*, *ahnen*, spirit, *veihamma*, holy.

Specimen

LUKE 1 46—56

Jah quāþ Mariam Mikleid saivala meina Fan, jah svegneid ahma meins du Goþa nasjand memamma Unte msahu du hnarvenai þujos seinaizos sai allis fiam humma nu audagjand mik alla kunja Unie gatavida mis mikihem sa mahteiga, jah qeih uamo is Jnh armahartee is in aldins aldē þam ogandam ma Gatavida svinþem in arma seinamma, distahida mikilþuhtans gahugdai hantins seinis, gadahausida mahtegans af stolam jah ushluhida gahnarvidans, gredigans gasōþidr þuþe, jah gabignondans insandida lausans, hleibida Israela þumagu seinamma, gamundans armahantins, sva sve iodidā du attam du attam unsaraim Abiahauma jah fiarvts und aiv.

§ 164. At the present moment there is nothing throughout the whole length and breadth of Germany but the High-German, the Low-German, and the Frisian, the Low-German including the Dutch of Holland. Of the Angle and the Old Saxon nothing remains. The Frisian represents the class they belong to; but the Frisian itself is a fragment. The Moeso-Gothic, like the Angle and the Old Saxon, is also extinct, indeed its exact locality is a point upon which there is more than one doctrine.

So much, then, for the languages which have disappeared, and so much for the Frisian, which is in a fair way of disappearing. The forms of speech which have supplanted them are the High-German and the Low-German—the German of the South and East and the German of the North. Allied in structure, they have developed themselves differently. It was the Low-German which spread itself at the expense of the Angle and Old Saxon; and these it appears to have replaced before the High-German came into the field. Its encroachments began under Charlemagne, when the Old Saxon first, and afterwards the Anglo-Saxon, gave way to it. It was partially arrested by the marshes of Friesland, and partially, on the borders of Denmark, by the Eyder. Sleswick, however, though now half German, was originally wholly Danish; so that it is the Low-German which has most especially encroached on the Scandinavian. It is the Low-German also which has encroached upon the Slavonic of Luneburg, Lauenburg, Eastern Holstein, Altmark, Mecklenburg, Pomerania, and Brandenburg. It is the Low-German which, protruding itself beyond the boundaries of Slavonia, has most especially encroached upon the Lithuanian of Prussia, of Courland, and of Livonia. Finally; it is the Low-German which has encroached upon the Fin or Ugrian, of Esthonia. For all this, however, it is not the literary language of Germany, though it is that of Holland. Elsewhere, notwithstanding the existence of several notable compositions in it, it passes for a provincial form of speech. At what time it completed the displacement of the Angle of Germany is uncertain.

§ 165. *Mutatis mutandis* the material history of the High-German is nearly that of the Low. The former extended itself in the south as the latter extended itself in the north. So far as Switzerland is German, it is *High-German*; so are the dialects of the Tyrol and the Italian frontier, so also the German of Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola, where it comes in contact with

the Slavonic ; so is the German of Hungary, Bohemia, Saxony, Bavaria, Swabia, and Franconia. The importance, however, of the High-German form of speech by no means consists in the magnitude of its area, but rather in the fact of its being the language in which the literature of Germany is embodied. It was cultivated betimes, and it was cultivated successfully. The Reformation determined its ascendancy. Whilst the Protestant portion of the empire lay almost wholly within the limits of Low Germany, the language of Luther was the High-German of Saxony ; and it was the High-German of Saxony into which the standard translation of the Holy Scriptures was made. Hence it became the language of the Church and the Schools, and that in the extreme Low-German districts—the districts which were most especially Protestant. Of the standard literature, then, which has been developed since the Reformation, the Low-German dialects of Germany supply little or nothing. The Dutch of *Holland* (as has been stated) is a cultivated language : and in Holland only is the Low-German form of speech the vehicle of a national literature.

The Low-German—propagated by the Carlovingian Franks—encroached upon the Angle, the Old Saxon, the Frisian, and the Danish. The High-German of the Reformers has encroached, and is encroaching, upon the Low.

§ 166. *The Scandinavian languages*—Allied to each other, and allied to the languages of Germany are the following forms of speech, forms of speech which we may call *Scandinavian*, or *Norse* :—

1. The Icelandic of Iceland, closely akin to which is the
2. Feroic of the Feroe Isles ; and also
3. Several of the more archaic provincial dialects of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark.
4. The literary language of Sweden, and
5. The literary language of Denmark and Norway.

§ 167. *The literary Danish*.—This is Norwegian as well

Specimen.

1

In the Original.

In English.

Kong Christian stod ved høien Mast,	King Christian stood by high-the mast
I Rog og Damp,	In reek and damp,
Hans Væge hamrede saa fast,	His weapon hammered so fast
At Gothens Hjelm og Hjerne brast,	That Gothland's helms and brains
	bust,

Da sank hveit fiendtligt Speil og Mast.	Then sank each hostile (fiendlike) stern
I Røg og Damp	and mast
Flve, skieg de, flye, hvad flygte kan '.	In reek and damp.
Hvo staaci for Danmarks Christian	Flv. shueled they, fly, what fly can '.
I kamp '.	Who stands against Denmark's Chris- tian
	In battle '.
Niels Jucl gav Agt paa Stormens Dag	Niel Juel gave heed on storms-the crash
Nu ei det Tid '.	Now is it time
Han hæsedede det røde Flæg,	He hoists the red flag,
Og slog paa Fienden Slag i Slag.	Elke slew on fiend-the blow on blow,
Da skreg de høit blandt Stormens	Then shrieked they high amid storms-
Dag	the crash,
Nu er det Tid '.	Now is it time,
Flve, skieg de, hveit, som veed et Sigul '.	Flv, shrieked they, who knows a shelter '.
Hvo kan bestaae for Danmarks Jucl	Who can stand against Denmark's Juel
I Strid '.	In fight '.
Northhav '.	O North Sea '.
Glimt af Vessel brød	flash of vessel broke
Din mørke Skye,	Thy murky cloud (sky)
Da tyede Kæmper til dit Skjød,	Then took refuge warriors (champions)
Thi med ham lynd' Skæk og Død	in thy bosom,
Thi Vallen høites Vial, som brød	For with him flashed fight and death
Din tykke Skye	From battle-fields, heard-as cry which
Thi Danmark lyner Tordenskjold,	broke,
Hveit give sig i Himmels Vold,	Thy thick cloud (sky)
Og flye!	From Denmark flashes Tordenskjold '.
	Each give himself in Heaven's power
	(wealding)
	And fly
Du Danskes Vej til Roes og Magt,	Thy Dane's way to glory and might,
Sortladne Hav '.	Dark Sea '.
Modtog din Ven, som ufoersagt	Accept (take in meeting) thy friend, who
Tot mode Faen med Foersagt,	reckless
Saa stolt, som du, mod Stormens Magt,	Dare meet danger with contempt,
Sortladne Hav '.	So proud as thou, against storms-the
Og rask igjennem Larm og Spil	might,
Og Kamp og Seier for mig til	Dark Sea '.
Mit Grav '.	And swift through noise and music,
	And fight and victory bear me to (til)
	My grave '.

2

NORWEGIAN NATIONAL SONG (concluding stanzas).

Frihedens Tempel i Normandens Dale
 Stander saa heiligt i Ly af hans Fjeld
 Fint tor han tænke, og fint tor han tale,
 Fint tor han vinke til Norriges Held
 Fuglen i Skove,
 Nordhavets Vove
 Finere ei er end Norriges Mand

Villig dog lyder han selvgivne Love,
 Trofast mod Konning og Fædreneland
 Elskede Land med de skyhøie Bjege,
 Flugtbare Dale og fiskrige Kyst!
 Troskab og Kjærlighed fio vi Dig sværge!
 Kalder Du, bløde vi for Dig med Lyst
 Evig Du stande,
 Elskte blandt Lande!

Frit som den Storm, der omsuser Dit Fjeld,
 Og medens Bolgen omsnoer Dine Strande,
 Stedse Du voxer i Hæder og Held!

In English

Freedom's temple in Normans-the dales
 Stands so noble in lea of his rock (fell)
 Free dares he think, and free dares he speak,
 Free dares he work til Norway's weal
 Bird (*foul*)-the in woods (*shaws*)
 North-sea's-the waves
 Free is not than Norway's man,
 Willing, however, obeys he self-given laws,
 True-fast towards king and fatherland
 Loved land with the sky-high hills (beigs),
 Fruitful valleys, and fish-rich coast!
 Truth and love glad we for thee swear,
 Callest thou, bleed we for thee with pleasure
 Ever thou stand
 Loved amongst lands,
 Free as the storm that roars round thy fell,
 And (eke) whilst billow-the laps round thy strand,
 Ever thou wax in praise and wellfare

New Testament — MARK i 1-8

- 1 Jesu Christi Guds Sons Evangelii Begyndelse.
- 2 Ligesom skrevet er i Prophetiene. See, jeg sender min Enge for dit Ansigt, som skal berede din Vej for dig
- 3 Det er hans Rost, som raaber i Oiken. bereder Herrens Vej, gloire hans Stier rette
- 4 (Saaledes) dobt Johannes i Oiken, og prædikede Omvendelsens Daab til Syndernes Forladelse
- 5 Og det ganske Land Judæa gik ud til ham, og de af Jerusalem, og alle de, som bekendte deres Synder, dobt af ham i Jordans Flod
- 6 Men Johannes var klædt i Kameel-Haar, og med et Læderbelte om sin Lend, og aad Græshopper og vild Honning,
- 7 Og prædikede, og sagde der kommer den efter mig, som er stærkere end jeg, hvilken jeg ikke er værdig til at bulke mig ned for, og oplose hans Skoerem
- 8 Vel har jeg dobt eder med Vand, men han skal dobe eder med den Hellig Aand

§ 168. *The Literary Swedish*.—This is easily understood by an educated Dane or Norwegian.

Specimen

From Frithof's Saga, Canto ix

1	1.
Nu ar att saga hvar Jarl Angantyr satt an Uti sin sal af furu, Ock drack med sma man; Han var så glad i hagen, Sag ut åt blånad han, Der solen sjunk i vagen, Allt som en gyllne svan	Now is it to say how Earl Angantyr sat In his hall of fir, And drank with his men. He was so glad in spuit, Looked out on the blue way, Where the sun sank in the wave, All as a golden swan
2	2
Vid fönstret gamle Halvar Stod utanför på valst Hann vaktade med allvar, Gaf ock på myödet akt En sed den gamle hade, Hann jeint i botten drack, Ock utet ord hann sade, Allott hornett in han stack	At the window old Halvar Stood outside at watch, He watched with earnestness, And eke gave heed to the mead A habit the old one had, He drank even to the bottom, And not a word did he say, He only stuck the horn in *
3	3.
Nu slangde han det vida I salen in och qvad, " Skepp sei jag boljan vida, " Den färdan ar ej glad " Man sei jag doden naia, " Nu lagga de i land, " Ock trenne jattar baa " De bleknade på strand "	Now he flung it in far The hall and said, " I see a ship ride the waves, " Whose fare is not glad. " I see men near death, " They now make the land, " And two giants bear " The pale ones on shore "
4	4
Utofver boljans spegel, Från salen Jarl sag ned " Det är Ellidas segel, " Och Frithof, tvi jag, med " På gången och på pannan, " Känns thoistens son igen " Så blickar mgen annan " I Nordens land som den "	Over the billows' mirror, From his hall the Earl looked down. " That is Ellidas's sail, " And Frithof, I trow, with it " By gart and front " Thorsten's son is known, " So looks no other " In the Northland as he "
5	5.
Från dryckesbord held modig Sprang Atle Viking då, Svartskåggig Berserk, blodig Ock Gym at se uppå	From the drinking-board heroic Sprang Atle the Viking then, Blackbearded Berserk, bloody And grim to look on

* Through the window into the drinking-room.

"Nu," skrek han, "vil jag pröfva,
 "Hvad icket ment deimed,
 "At Firthof svad kann döfva,
 "Och allidig bei om fied"

6

Och upp med honom sprungo
 Hanns bistu kampar tolt
 På förhand luften stungo,
 Och svängde svärd och kolf
 De stormade mot stranden,
 Hvor trottadt diakskepp stod,
 Men Firthof satt a sanden
 Och talte kraft och mod

7

"Lätt kunde jag dig falla,"
 Skrek Atle med stort gny
 "Vill i ditt val dock ställa,
 "At kampa eller fly
 "Men blott om fied du beder
 "Fastan an kampe hård,
 "Jag som an van dig leder,
 "Allt up til Jællens gaid"

8

"Val a jag trott af fuden,"
 Genmalte Firthof vied,
 "Dock må vi pröfva svanden,
 "For an jag tigger fied
 Då såg man stalen ljunga,
 I solbrun kampehand,
 På Angurvadel's tunga,
 Hvar runa stod i brand.

9

Nu skiftas svardshugg dyga,
 Och dräpslag hagla nu,
 Och begges skjoldar flyga,
 På summa gang itu
 De kampar utan tadel
 Sta dock i knedsen fast,
 Men skapt bet Angurvadel,
 Och Atles klinga brast.

10

"Mod svärdlos man jag svanger,"
 Sad Firthof, "ei mitt svärd
 "Men lyster det dig langer,
 "Vi pröfva annan fard."
 Som vågor då om hosten,
 De begge storma an,
 Och ställbekladda bröstet,
 Slå tatt emot hvann.

"Now," shrieked he, "will I prove
 "What Fame meant thereby,
 "That Firthof can dull the sword,*
 "And never plays for quarter."

6

And up with him sprung
 His fierce champions twelve,
 Beforehand they beat the air,
 And swung sword and javelin
 They stormed to the strand,
 Where tied the ship stood,
 But Firthof sat on the sand,
 And talked strength and courage.

7.

"Lightly could I fell thee,"
 Shrieked Atle, with great roar
 "But I will give you choice,
 To fight or fly
 "Only ask for peace,
 "And though a champion hard,
 "I'll lead you as a friend
 "Up to the Earl's house"

8

"Well am I tired of the voyage,"
 Answered Firthof angry,
 "Yet we must try the sword,
 "Ere I beg peace"
 Then did one see the steel flash
 In the tanned champion-hand
 On Angurvadel's tongue
 Each rune stood a-burning

9

Now heavy sword-cuts are exchanged,
 And death-strokes hail now
 And both then shields fly
 At the same time in two
 The warriors with reproach
 Stand still in then circle,
 But sharp hit Angurvadel,
 And Atle's sword broke.

10.

"Against a swordless man I swing,"
 Said Firthof, "not my sword
 "But if it list thee longer,
 "We try another fashion"
 As waves then in autumn
 The two storm on,
 And steel-clad breasts
 Dash close against each other

* Of his enemy, i. e. sword-proof.

11

De biottades som bjornar,
 Uppa sitt fjall af sno,
 De spande hop som ornar,
 Utofvei viedgep so
 Rodfastad klippa holle
 Vel knappast ut att stå.
 Ock lummig jeinek folle
 For mindre tag an sa

12

Fran pannan svetten lackar,
 Och biostet hafves kallt,
 Och buskar, sten, ock backar,
 Uppsparkas ofvei allt
 Med bafvan slutet bida
 Stallkladde man a strand,
 Det biottandet var vilda
 Beromdt i Nordens land

13

Til slut dock Frithof fallde
 Sin fien til jord,
 Hann knat mot biostet stalde,
 Och tallte viedens ord.
 "Blot nu mitt svaid jag hade
 "Du svarte Berseiksskagg,
 "Jag genom lifvet lade,
 "Pa dig ded hvassa agg."

14

"Eet skal ei hinder bringa,"
 Sad Atle stolt i hag
 "Gå du, ock ta din klinga,
 "Jag legau som jag låg
 "Den ena, som dem andia,
 "Skal engang Valhall se
 "Idag skal jag val vandia,
 "I morgon du kanske"

15

Ei lange Frithof droyde
 Den lek han sluta vill
 Han Anguvaldel hoyde,
 Men Atle låg dyck still
 Det iorde hjeltens sinne,
 Sin viede då hann band,
 Holl midt i huggett inne,
 Ock tog den fallnes hand

11

They wiestled as bears
 On then hill of snow,
 They grappled as eagles
 Over an angry sea
 Root-fast chit's would scarcely
 Hold out to stand,
 And thick non-oars would fall
 For lesser blows than such

12

From the brow the sweat splashes,
 And the breast heaves cold,
 And bush, stone, and hill
 Are lit-up over all.
 With fight they await the upshot
 The steel-clad men on the shore
 That tussle was wide
 Famed in Northland

13

At last, however Frithof felled
 His foe to earth,
 He placed his knee aganst his breast,
 And spoke words of rage.
 "If I only had my sword,
 "Thou black Berseik-beard,
 "I would through thy body
 "Pass its sharp edge"

14

"That be no hindrance,"
 Said Atle proud in spirit.
 "Go thou, and take thy sword,
 "I will be as I have lam
 "The one like the other
 "Shall one day see Valhall
 "To-day I go,
 "To-morrow you may be"

15

Not long did Frithof delay,
 He will close the game
 He lifted Anguvaldel,
 But Atle lay still
 That touched the hero's heart,
 He checked his rage,
 Stopped himself half-way in the blow,
 And took the fallen-man's hand

From Frithof's Saga, Canto xvii

1

Kung Ring han satt i hogbank om julen och drack mjod,
 Hos honom satt hans drottning så hvit och rosenod
 Som vår och host dem båda man såg bredvid hvaiann,
 Hon var den friska våren, den kulna host var han.

2

Då tädde uti salen en okänd gubbe in,
 Från Hufvud och till fotter han insvept var i skinn
 Han hade staf i handen och lutad sågs han gå,
 Men hogre än de andra den gamle var ändå

3.

Han satte sig på banken långt ned vid salens dörr,
 Der är de ännu ställe ännu, som det var förr
 De hofman logo smadligt och sågo till hvarann,
 Och pekade med fingret på luden björnskinnsman

4.

Då ljungar med två ögon den frammande så hvasst,
 Med ena handen grep han en ungeisven i hast,
 Helt varligen han vände den hofman upp och ned
 Då tystnade de andra, och hade gjort så med.

In English

1

King Ring he sat in high-bench at Yule (*Christmas*), eke drank mead,
 By him sat his queen so white and rosy-red
 As Spring and Autumn (*harvest*) them both man saw aside-by each other,
 She was the fresh spring, the chill harvest was he

2

Then trod out-in hall-*the* an unknown (*unknown*) old-man in:
 From head and (*eye*) to feet he covered was in skin,
 He had staff in hand *the*, eke bent was-seen he (to) go
 But higher than the others the old-man was still

3

He sat-him on bench-*the* along below by halls *the* door,
 There is the poor's place (*stall*) still-now, as that was before.
 The court-men laughed scornful, and saw till each-other,
 And pointed with finger-*the* at ragged bear-skin man

4

Then flashes with two eyes the stranger so sharp,
 With one hand he griped a young-swain in haste
 Right (*whole*) tenderly he turned the court-man up and down (*neither*)
 Then kept silent the others, we had done (*gar* Scotisé) with (also)

Swedish New Testament —MARK 1 1-8.

1 Thetta är begynnelsen af Jesu Chrsti, Guds Sons, Evangelio.

2 Såsom skrifvit är i Propheterna: Si, jag sänder min Ängel framför ditt ansikte, hvilken bereda skal tin väg för dig

3 En ropandes röst är i öknen: "Bereder Herrans väg, görer hans stigar ratta"

4 Johannes var i öken, dopte, och predikade battungens dopelse, til syder-nas föråttelse

5 Och til honom gingo ut hela Judiska landet, och the utaf Jerusalem, och låto sig alle dopa af honom, i Jordan's flod, och bekände sina synder

6 Och Jóhannes var kladd med carnelahái, och med en ladeigjolding om sína landi, och at gíashoppoi, och vilkþomn?

7 Och þiedrkade och sado: En kominnr efter mig som stakare ar an jag, hwilkens skotwangei jag icke waidig at nederfalla och uplosa

8 Jag doper eder med watn, men han skal dopa eder með then Heliga Anda

§ 169. *The Icelandic*—This is remarkable for the small extent to which it has changed since the thirteenth century, with the written language of which the modern Icelandic closely agrees.

Specimens

1

Icelandic (Fareynga-Saga—Ed Mohnike)

Ok nú er þat eitthvert sinn un sumant at Sigmundi mælti til þois. "Hvat mun verða, þo at við fæim í skog þenna, er hei er norðr fía garði." Þórir svaraí "a því er mei eingi forvitni," segir hann "Ekki ei mei svá gefit," segir Sigmundi, "ok þangat skal ek fara." "þú munt láða hljóto," segir þuinn, "en hljótum við þa boðorð föstia míns." Nu fóru þen, ok hafði Sigmundi víðaroxi eina í hendi sei, koma í skoginn, ok í rjóðr eitt fagut, ok ei þen hafa þai eingi leingi veit, þa heyrta þen björn mikinn harðla ok grunlgan þat var viðbjörn mikill, ulfgi at lit þen hlaupa nu aptia a stiginn þan, er þen höfðu þangat áut, stiginn var mjór ok þaungir, ok hleppi þouu fyrr, en Sigmundi síðar. Dýrit hleppi nu eptir þem a stiginn, ok veðr þvi þaungir stiginn, ok biotna eikanaí fyrr þvi Sigmundi sney þa skjott út at stiginn mullum tjáanna, ok biðr þai til er dýrit kemr jafn-fiam honum þa hoggi hann jafnt meðal hlusta á dýrinu með tveim höndum, svá at exin sokkr. En dýrit fellr afiam, ok er dautt

Feroc

Nú vár so til ajna Ferina um Summari, at Sigmundur snakkaji so við Towra: "Kvat man bagga, towat við fæim új henda Skowin, új er hér noran-fri Garin?" Towur svarar, "Íkkj havi e Hu at forvitnast ettir túj," sinn han "Íkkj eri e so sintur," sigr Sigmundur, "og haar skal e fara." "Tu feitt tá at láo," sigr Towur, "men tá brottum við Fóro Fostifaju myns." Nú fowru tajar, og Sigmundur heji ajna oksi til Biennuvi új Hondon, tajak oma in új Skowin, og á ayt vakut rudda Plos men íkkj hava taji veri har lajngi, finn taji hoja kvodtt Biak új Skowinn, og biat ettir sujga lajr ajna egvula stowra Bjodn og gruska. Ta va ajn stowr Skowbjodn gagalmut á Latun. Tair leypa nú attar á Rásina, sum tair höddu gungu ettir, Rásin var mjáv og trong, Towru leypur undan, og Sigmundur attaná. Djowri lapiu nú ettir taimum á Rásini, og nú verur Rásin tlong kjá túj, so at Ákjumar biotnavu frá túj. Sigmundur snujur tá kvikhami út af Rásini mimmillum Tjumi, og bujar hai til Djowri kjemur abajnt han. Tá hoggu han bajnt új Ojnalystri á Djowrinum við bárun Hondun, so at oxin sokkur in, og Djowri dettu bajnt fiamettir, og er standejt

Swedish

Och nu var det engång om sommarin, som Sigmund sado till Thorér: "Hvad mände val deraf wada, om vi åter gå ut i skogen, som ligget der norr om gården?" "Det as jadt alldeles icke nyfiken att veta," svarade Thor

"Icke gåi det så med mig," sade Sigmund, "och ditiet måste jag " "Du kommer då att råda," sade Thor, "men de med ofvträdade vi var Fosterfaders bud " De gingo nu åstad, och Sigmund hade en vedyxa i handen, de kommo in i skogen, och ståt der på fingo de se en ganska stor och vildsamt björn, en dråpelig skogsbjörn, varg-grå till färgen De sprungo då tillbaka på samma stig som de hade kommit dit Stigen var smal och trang, och Thor ei sprang framst, men Sigmund efterst Djuret lopp nu efter dem på stigen, och stigen blef trang för detsamma, så att tiaden sonderbrötos i dess lopp Sigmund vande då knutigt ictal från stigen, och ställde sig mellan tiaden, samt stod der, tills djuret kom fram midt för honom Då fattade han yxan med begge händerna, och hogg midt emellan oronen på djuret, så att yxan gick in, och djuret störtade framåt, och dog på stallet

Danish

Og nu var det engang om Sommeren, at Sigmund sagde til Thoir "Hvad mon der vel kan flyde af, om vi end gaac hen i den Skov, som ligger her nordfor Gaarden " "Det er jeg ikken nysgjerrig efter at vide," svarode Thoir "Ei gaar det mig saa," sagde Sigmund, "og derud maa jeg " "Du kommer da til at raade," sagde Thoir, "men da overtæde, vi vor Fosterfaders Bud " De gik nu, og Sigmund havde en Vedoxe i Haanden, de kom ind i Skoven, og staa der paa, saae de en meget stor og grim Bjorn, en diabelig Skovebjorn, ulvegraa af Fæve De lob da tilbage ad den samme Sti, ad hvilken de vare komne derhen. Stien var smal og trang, og Thoir lob forrest, men Sigmund bagest Dyret lob nu efter dem paa Stien, og Stien blev trang for det, og Træerne brødes i det Lob Sigmund dierede da nu hurtigt ud af Stien, og stilled sig imellem Træene, og stod der indtil Dyret kom frem lige for ham Da fattede han oxen med begge Hænder, og hug lige mellem orene paa Dyret saa at oxen sank i, og Dyret styrtede fremad, og var død paa Stedet

English

And now is it a time about the summer, that Sigmund spake to Thoir "What would become, even if we two go into the wood (shaw), which here is north from the house " Thoir answers, "Thereto there is to me no curiosity," says he "So is it not with me," says Sigmund, "and thither shall I go " "Thou mayest counsel," says Thoir, "but we two break the bidding-word of foster-father mine " Now go they, and Sigmund had a wood-axe in his hands, they come into the wood, and into a fan place, and as they had not been there long, they hear a bear, big, fierce, and grim It was a wood-bear, big, wolf-grey in hue They run (leap) now back (after) to the path, by which they had gone thither The path was narrow and strait, and Thoir runs first, and Sigmund after The beast runs now after them on the path, and the path becomes strait, and broken oaks before it Sigmund turns then short out of the path among the trees, and hides there till the beast comes even with him Then cuts he even in between the ears of the beast with his two hands, so that the axe sinks, and the beast falls forwards, and is dead

2

From the Edda

Upp reis 'Oðinn
alda gautr,
ok hann a Sleipni
sóðul um lagði,

In English

Up rose Odm,
Of men king,
Eke he on Sleipner
Saddle on-laid.

1erð hann mæti þaðan
 Nífelheljar til
 mætti hann hvelja
 þeim ei or helju kom
 Sa var blóðugur
 um byrðir fíamann,
 ok galdrs föðun
 gól um lengu
 Fíamann 1erð Óðinn
 foldvegi dunni,
 hann kom at hafi
 Heljar íann.

Rode he nether-wards thence
 Nífel til,
 Met he the whelp,
 Which out of hell came
 He was bloody
 On breast in front
 Eke at the spell's father
 Baked long
 Forward rode Odinn
 The fieldway dunnet
 He came at the lugh
 Hell's house

Note — This is one of the Norse poems, translated by Gray.

Up rose the king of men with speed,
 And saddled stout his coal-black steed, &c

Note — The Danish, Swedish, and Icelandic place the definite article at the end of the word it agrees with. Hence *storm* = *storm*, *storm-en* = *the storm* (*storm-the*)

Again, the same languages have a true passive voice. Hence *hore* = *hear*, *hore-s* = *is heard*, *horte* = *heard*, *horte-s*, *was heard* (*heard-was*)

From Snorri's Heimskringla

3

Ynglinga Söga — Kap 1.

Sva ei sagt, at þingla heimsins, su ei mannfólk at byggja, er mjök vag-sleim ganga hof stór í utsjannum inn í jörðina. En þat kunnigheit, at haf-gengi af Njorvasundum, ok allt ut til Jórsala-lands. Af hafinu gengi lángr ha'sbotn til landnordis, ei heitir Svartahaf. Sa skilur heims þingjunga-gana. heitir fyrir austan Asia, en fyrir vestan kalla sumir Eviópa, en sumir Enea. En nordan at Svartahafi gengi Svijjod í mikla eda í kalda. Svijjod ena miklu kalla sumir menn ecki minni enn Seil-land hit mikla, sumir jafna henni við Blaland hit mikla. Hinn neyðir luti Svijjóðar liggja obygd af fíosti ok kulda, sva sem hinn syðir luti Blalands ei audi af solarbruna. Í Svijjóð eru stóir héitir moig. Þar eru ok margskona þjóðir undanliggi, ok margar túngu. Þar eru m-ar, ok þar eru dvergir. Þar eru ok blámen, þar eru dýr ok dækar fudulega storm. Uí Nordi ía fjöllum þeim, ei fyrir utan eru bygd alla, fellu í um Svijjóð, sú ei at iettu heitir Tanais, hun var fíodunn kollut Tanaqvísl edr Vanaqvísl, hún kémur til sjávar inn í Svarta-haf. Í Vanaqvíslum var þa kallat Vanaland, edr Vanheimr, su a skur heimsþingjunga-gana, heitir fyrir austan Asia, en fyrir vestan Eviópa.

Fyrir austan Tanaqvísl í Asia, var kallat Asa-land edr Asaheimr, en hofut-boigina, er í var landinu, kolludu þeir Asgard. En í borginni var hofdingi sá ei Óðinn var kalladr, þar var blótstadr mikill. Þar var þar síðr at 12 hafgödar vóru ættr, skyldu þeir rada fyrir blótum ok domum manna í milli, þat eru Diar kalladr edr diottnar. Þeim skyldi þjónusta veita allr fólk ok lotning. Óðinn var heimadr mikill ok mjök víðfíorull, ok eignadr moig miki. Han var sva Sigifíell, at í hvínn orustu feck hann gagn. Ok sva kom at hans menn

trudu því, at hann ætti heimilann síga í hvern orustu þat var hátti hans ef ann sendi menn sína til orustu eða aðrar sendingarar, at hann lagði að hendur í hofut þennu, ok gaf þennu þýanuk, trudu þen at þa mundi vel farax Sva var ok um hans manni, hvar sem þeir vidu i naudum staddu a sja eða a landi, þa kolladu þen a nafn hans, ok þottuz jafnan fa af því fio, þar þottuz þen ega allt til aust er hann var Hann tor opt sva longt i biot, at hann dvaldiz i feidinni moig mætti

In English

It is said that the earth's circle which the human race inhabits is torn across into many bights, so that great seas run into the land from the out-ocean. Thus it is known that a great sea goes in at Niorvasund, and up to the land of Jeru-salem. From the same sea a long sea-bight stretches towards the north-east and is called the Black Sea, and divides the three parts of the earth, of which the eastern part is called Asia, and the western is called by some Europa by some, Euea. Northward of the Black Sea lies Swithnod the Great or the Cold. The Great Sweden is reckoned by some not less than the Sarmians' land, others compare it to the Great Blue-land. The northern part of Swithnod lies uninhabited on account of frost and cold, as likewise the southern parts of Blue-land are waste from the burning of the sun. In Swithnod are many great domains, and many wonderful races of men, and many kinds of languages. There are giants, and there are dwarfs, and there are also blue men. There are wild beasts, and dreadfully large dragons. On the north-side of the mountains which lie outside of all inhabited lands runs a river through Swithnod, which is properly called by the name of Tanais, but was formerly called Tanaguisl, or Vanaguisl, and which falls into the ocean at the Black Sea. The country of the people on the Vanaguisl was called Vanaland, or Vanahenna, and the river separates the three parts of the world, of which the easternmost part is called Asia, and the westernmost Europe.

The country east of the Tanaguisl in Asia was called Asaland, or Asaheim, and the chief city in that land was called Asgaard. In that city was a chief called Odin, and it was a great place for sacrifice. It was the custom there that twelve temple go-las should both direct the sacrifices, and also judge the people. They were called Diars, or Drotners, and all the people served and obeyed them. Odin was a great and very far-travelled warrior, who conquered many kingdoms, and so successful was he that in every battle the victory was on his side. It was the belief of his people that victory belonged to him in every battle. It was his custom when he sent his men into battle, or on any expedition, that he first laid his hand upon their heads, and called down a blessing upon them, and then they believed their undertaking would be successful. His people also were accustomed, whenever they fell into danger by land or sea, to call upon his name, and they thought that always they got comfort and aid by it, for where he was they thought help was near. Often he went away so long that he passed many seasons on his journeys.

4.

From the New Testament.

MARK L 1-8

1 Þetta er upphaf evangeliu unn Jesum Christum Guds son, svo sem skrifad er hna spamonnumum

2 Sia! Eg sende menn engal fyrir þei, sa sem tilheide þinn veg fyrir þer

3. Þar er ein predikaia 10ld 1 eydemorku · “greided þer veg drottans og geied hans stigu ietta”

4 Johannes var í eydemorku, skude og predikade um idranar skiin, til syndanna fyrigefingai

5 Og þar geck út til hans allt Juda land, og þen af Jerusalem, og þær letu aller skua sig af hon um í Joidan, jatande sinai synder

6 Enn Johannes var klæddur med ulfballds harun, og eitt ólarbelte um hans lendai, og hann at emgespiettur og skógailunang

7. Og predikade og sagde Þar kemur enn eftir mig, sem er sterkare enn eg, hveis eg em eigi veidugn framfallande upp at leysa þvinge hans skofata

8 Eg skíne yður med vatne, enn hann mun skína yður med heil ogum anda

§ 170. The comparison between the chief inflections characteristic of the most important of the preceding languages is as follows.

Declension of Substantives ending in a Vowel

ANGLO-SAXON			ICELANDIC
<i>Neuter</i>			<i>Neuter</i>
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Nom</i>	Eage (<i>eye</i>)	Auga (<i>eye</i>)
	<i>Acc</i>	Eage	Auga
	<i>Dat</i>	Eágan	Auga
	<i>Gen</i>	Eagan	Auga
<i>Plur</i>	<i>Nom</i>	Eagan	Augu
	<i>Acc</i>	Eagan	Augu
	<i>Dat</i>	Eagan	Augum
	<i>Gen</i>	Eágan	Augna.
<i>Masculine</i>			<i>Masculine</i>
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Nom</i>	Nama (<i>a name</i>)	Bogi (<i>a bou</i>)
	<i>Acc</i>	Naman	Boga
	<i>Dat</i>	Naman	Boga
	<i>Gen</i>	Nainan	Boga
<i>Plur</i>	<i>Nom</i>	Naman	Boga
	<i>Acc</i>	Naman	Boga
	<i>Dat</i>	Namum	Bogum
	<i>Gen</i>	Namena	Boga
<i>Feminine</i>			<i>Feminine.</i>
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Nom</i>	Tunge (<i>a tongue</i>)	Tunga (<i>a tongue</i>).
	<i>Acc</i>	Tungan	Tungu
	<i>Dat</i>	Tungan	Túngu
	<i>Gen</i>	Tungan	Túngu
<i>Plur</i>	<i>Nom</i>	Tungan	Túngur
	<i>Acc</i>	Tungan	Túngur
	<i>Dat</i>	Tungum	Túngum.
	<i>Gen</i>	Tungena	Tungna

Declension of Substantives ending with a Consonant

		Neuter	Neuter
Sing	Nom	Leaf (<i>a leaf</i>)	Skip (<i>a ship</i>)
	Acc	Le of	Skip
	Dat	Le áfe	Skipi
	Gen	Leafes	Skip's
Plur	Nom	Leaf	Skip
	Acc	Leaf	Skip
	Dat	Leafum	Skipum
	Gen	Leafa	Skipa
		<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Masculine</i>
Sing	Nom.	Smíð <i>a smith</i>	Konungi (<i>a king</i>)
	Acc	Smíð	Konung
	Dat	Smíðe	Konungi
	Gen	Smíðes	Konungs
Plur	Nom	Smíðas	Konungar
	Acc	Smíðis	Konunga
	Dat	Smíðum	Konungum
	Gen	Smíða	Konunga
		<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>
Sing	Nom	Sp'æc (<i>a speech</i>)	Bruðr (<i>a bride</i>)
	Acc	Sp'æce	Brau
	Dat	Sp'æce	Bruðr
	Gen	Sp'æce	Bruðar
Plur	Nom	Sp'æca	Bruðir
	Acc	Sp'æca	Bruðir
	Dat	Sp'æcum	Bruðum.
	Gen	Sp'æca	Bruða.

§ 171. The most characteristic difference between the Saxon and Icelandic lies in the peculiar position of the definite article in the latter language. In Saxon the article corresponding with the modern word *the*, is *þat*, *se*, *seó*, for the neuter, masculine, and feminine genders respectively; and these words, regularly declined, are *prefixed* to the words with which they agree, just as is the case with the English and with the majority of languages. In Icelandic, however, the article, instead of preceding, follows, its noun, *with which it coalesces*, having previously suffered a change in form. The Icelandic article corresponding to *þat*, *se*, *seó*, is *hitt* (N), *hinn* (M), *hin* (F.) from this the *h* is ejected, so that, instead of the regular inflection (*a*), we have the forms (*b*).

	<i>Neut</i>	<i>Masc</i>	<i>Fem</i>
<i>Sing Nom</i>	Hitt	Hinn	Hin
<i>Acc</i>	Hitt	Hinn	Hina.
<i>Dat</i>	Hinnu	Hinum	Hinni
<i>Gen</i>	Hins	Hins	Hinnar
<i>Plur Nom</i>	Hin	Hinnr	Hinar.
<i>Acc</i>	Hin	Hina	Hinar.
<i>Dat</i>	Hinum	Hinum	Hinnu.
<i>Gen</i>	Hinna	Hinna	Hinna.

		<i>(b)</i>	
<i>Sing Nom</i>	—it	—inn	—in
<i>Acc</i>	—it	—inn	—ina (-na ¹).
<i>Dat</i>	—nu	—num	—innu (-nuu).
<i>Gen</i>	—ins	—ins	—innar (-nnar).
<i>Plur Nom</i>	in	nir	nai
<i>Acc</i>	—in	—na	—nar
<i>Dat</i>	—num	—num	—num.
<i>Gen.</i>	—nna	—nna	—nna

whence, as an affix, in composition,

	<i>Neut</i>	<i>Masc</i>	<i>Fem.</i>
<i>Sing Nom</i>	Augat	Bogunn	Tungan.
<i>Acc</i>	Augat	Bogunn	Tunguna
<i>Dat</i>	Augann	Bogunum	Tungunna.
<i>Gen</i>	Augans	Bogans	Tungunnar.
<i>Plur Nom.</i>	Augun	Bogunnr	Tungunnar
<i>Acc</i>	Augun	Bogana	Tungunnar.
<i>Dat.</i>	Auganum	Bogunum	Tungunum.
<i>Gen</i>	Auganna	Boganna	Tungunna.

§ 172. In the Swedish, Norwegian, and Danish this peculiarity in the position of the definite article is preserved. Its origin, however, is concealed; and an accidental identity with the indefinite article has led to false notions respecting its nature. In the languages in point the *i* is changed into *e*, so that what in Icelandic is *it* and *in*, is in Danish *et* and *en*. *En*, however, as a separate word, is the numeral *one*, and also the indefinite article *a*, whilst in the neuter gender it is *et*—*en Sol*, *a sun*; *et Bord*, *a table*; *Solen*, *the sun*; *Bordet*, *the table*. From modern forms like those just quoted, it has been imagined that the definite is merely the indefinite article transposed. This it is not. To apply an expression of Mr. Cobbett's, *en = a*, and *-en = the*, are the same combination of letters, but not the same word.

Declension of Adjectives.

SAXON			
Definite.*			
	Singular		
	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.
Nom.	Gode	Goda	Gode
Acc.	Gode	Godan	Godan
Abl.	Godan	Godan	Godan
Dat.	Godan	Godan	Godan
Gen.	Godan	Godan	Godan.
Plural			
Nom.	Godan	Godan	Gódan
Acc.	Godan	Godan	Godan
Abl.	Godum	Godum	Godum
Dat.	Godum	Godum	Godum
Gen.	Godena	Godena	Godena.

Indefinite.			
Singular.			
	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.
Nom.	God	God	God
Acc.	God	Godie	Góde
Abl.	Gode	Gode	Godie
Dat.	Godum	Godum	Godie.
Gen.	Godes	Godes	Godie
Plural.			
Nom.	Gode	Gode	Gode
Acc.	Gode	Gode	Gode
Abl.	Godum	Godum	Godum.
Dat.	Godum	Godum	Godum.
Gen.	Godia	Godia	Godra.

ICELANDIC.		
Definite.*		
	Singular.	
	Neut.	Masc. Fem.
Nom.	Haga	Hagi Haga
Acc.	Haga	Haga Hogu
Abl.	Haga	Haga Hogu
Dat.	Haga	Haga Hogu
Gen.	Haga	Haga Hogu.

Hogu is the Plural form for all the Cases and all the Genders

Indefinite.		
Singular		
	Neut.	Masc. Fem.
Nom.	Hagt	Hagi Hög.
Acc.	Hagt	Hagan Hög.
Abl.	Hogu	Hogum Hagi.
Dat.	Hogu	Hogum Hagi.
Gen.	Hags	Hags Hagi.
Plural.		
Nom.	Hog	Hagr Hagar.
Acc.	Hog	Haga Hagi.
Abl.	Hogum	Hogum Hogum.
Dat.	Hogum	Hogum Hogum.
Gen.	Hagra	Hagra Hagra.

Observe in the Icelandic forms the absence of the termination *-an*. Observe also the neuter termination *-t*, as *hagr*, *hagt*. Throughout the modern forms of the Icelandic (*viz.* the Swedish, Danish, and Norwegian languages) this termination is still preserved: *e. g. en god Hest*, a good horse; *et godt Hjært*, a good heart; *en skön Pige*, a beautiful damsel, *et Skarpt Sverd*, a sharp sword.

§ 173. Amongst the pronouns the following differences present themselves. The Saxon forms are, for the pronoun of the second person, *þu* (thou), *git* (ye two), *ge* (ye); whilst in Icelandic they are *þu*, *þið*, *þer*, respectively. Again, in Saxon there is no reflective pronoun corresponding with the Latin *se*. In Icelandic we have *sik*, *sér*, *sin*, corresponding to the Latin *se*, *sibi*, *suus*. Besides this, the word *sin* is declined, so that like the Latin *suus* it becomes adjectival.

* The meaning of these terms is explained in p. 193. This order of the cases and genders is from Rask. It is certainly more natural than the usual one

<i>Sing. Nom.</i>	Sitt	Sinn	Sin.
<i>Acc.</i>	Sitt	Sinn	Sina.
<i>Dat</i>	Sinn	Sinnun	Sinnu
<i>Gen</i>	Sins	Sins	Sinnar.
<i>Plur. Nom</i>	Sin	Sinn	Sinnar.
<i>Acc</i>	Sin	Sins	Sinnar.
<i>Dat</i>	Sinnun	Sinnun	Sinnun
<i>Gen</i>	Sinna	Sinna	Sinna

In Saxon there is of course no such an adjectival form. *There* the Possessives of the Third Person correspond not with the Latin *suus, sua, suum*, but with the Latin *ejus* and *eorum*. The English words *his* and *her* are *genitive* cases, not *adjectives*.

Further remarks upon the presence of the Reflective Pronoun *sik* in Icelandic, and its absence in Saxon, will appear in the sequel.

The Numerals.

SAXON	ICELANDIC
1 'An	Ein, einn, ein
2 Twa	Tvo, tven
3 þreo .	þju þri
4 Feower	Þjögur, tjórir
5 Fif	Fimm
6 Six	Sex
7 Seofon	Sjo
8 Eahta	'Atta
9 Nigon	Niu
10 Tyn .	Tiu

§ 174. Of the Icelandic verbs the infinitives end in *-a*; as *kalla*, to call; *elska*, to love; whereas the Saxon termination is *-an*; as *lufian*, to love, *wyrcan*, to work

The persons are as follows —

	SAXON	ICELANDIC
<i>Pres Sing</i>	1 Bæne	Benni
	2 Bænst	Bennir
	3 Bænið	Bennir
<i>Plur</i>	1 Bænað	Bennum
	2 Bænað	Bennuð
	3 Bænað	Bienna

The characteristic, however, of the Icelandic (indeed of all the Scandinavian languages) is in the possession of a *passive* form, or a *passive* voice, ending in *-st*.—*Ek, þu, hann brennist*=*I, thou, he is burnt*; *Ver brennumst*=*We are*

burnt; þér brennizt=ye are burnt; þeir brennast=they are burnt. Past tense, Ek, þu, hann brendist, ver brendumst, þér brendast, þeir brendast Imperat: brenust=be thou burnt. Infinit: brennast=to be burnt

In the modern Danish and Swedish, the passive is still preserved, but without the final *t*. In the *older* stages of Icelandic, on the other hand, the termination was not *-st* but *-sc*; which *-sc* grew out of the reflexive pronoun *sik*. With these phenomena the Scandinavian languages give us the evolution and development of a passive voice; wherein we have the following series of changes.—1st, the reflexive pronoun coalesces with the verb, whilst the sense changes from that of a reflexive to that of a middle verb, 2nd, the *c* changes to *t*, whilst the middle sense passes into a passive one; 3rd, *t* is dropped from the end of the word, and the expression that was once reflexive then becomes strictly passive.

Now the Saxons have no passive voice at all. That they should have one *originating* like that of the Scandinavians was impossible. Having no reflexive pronoun, they had nothing to evolve it from.

The Auxiliary Verb		
	SAXON	ICELANDIC
	<i>Indicative — Present</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	1 Eom (<i>I am</i>)	Em
	2 Eart	Ert
	3 Is	Er.
<i>Plur.</i>	1 Synd (<i>Syndon</i>)	Erum
	2 Synd (<i>Syndon</i>)	Eiud
	3 Synd (<i>Syndon</i>)	Eiu
	<i>Indicative — Past.</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	1 Wæ's	Var
	2 Wæ're	Varit
	3 Wæ's	Var
<i>Plur.</i>	1 Wæ'ron	Forum
	2 Wæ'ron	Foru
	3 Wæ'ron	Foru
	<i>Subjunctive — Present</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	1 Sy'	Sé
	2 Sy'	Sei.
	3 Sy'	Sé.
<i>Plur.</i>	1 Sy'n	Séum
	2 Sy'n	Seud
	3 Sy'n	Seu

	SAXON	Subjunctive — Past	ICELANDIC
<i>Sing</i>	1 Wæ'le		Væll.
	2 Wæ're		Væll.
	3 Wæ'le		Væll.
<i>Plu</i>	1 Wæ'lon		Vællan.
	2 Wæ'lon		Væll.
	3 Wæ'lon		Væll.
		<i>Infinitive</i>	
	Wesan		Væla
		<i>Participle</i>	
	Wesende		Vælandi

§ 175. Recapitulating, we find that the characteristic differences of the greatest importance between the Icelandic and Saxon are three in number. —

- 1st The peculiar nature of the definite article.
- 2nd The neuter form of the adjectives in *-t*
- 3rd. The existence of a passive voice in *-se*, *-st*, or *-s*

§ 176. In the previous comparison the substantives were divided as follows — 1st, into those ending with a vowel; 2ndly, into those ending with a consonant. In respect to the substantives ending with a vowel (*eage*, *nama*, *tunge*), it may have been observed that their cases were in Anglo-Saxon almost exclusively formed in *-n*, as *eagan*, *tungan*, &c.; whilst words like *skip*, and *smið* had, throughout their whole declension, no case formed in *-n*; no case, indeed, wherein the sound of *-n* entered. This enables us (at least with the Anglo-Saxon) to make a general assertion concerning the substantives ending in a vowel in contrast to those ending in a consonant, viz. that they take an inflection in *-n*.

In Icelandic this inflection in *-n* is concealed by the fact of *-an* having been changed into *-a*. However, as this *-a* represents *-an*, and as fragments or rudiments of *-n* are found in the genitive plurals of the neuter and feminine genders (*augna*, *tungna*), we may make the same general assertion in Icelandic that we make in Anglo-Saxon, viz. that substantives ending in a vowel take an inflection in *-n*.

Along with the indication of this difference may be introduced the terms *weak* and *strong*, as applied to the declension of nouns.

Weak nouns end in a vowel; or, if in a consonant, in a consonant that has become final from the loss of the vowel that

originally followed it. They also form a certain proportion of their oblique cases in *-n*, or an equivalent to *-n*—Nom. *augó*, Gen. *aug-in-s*.

Strong nouns end in a consonant; or, if in a vowel, in one of the vowels allied to the semivowels *y* or *w*, and through them to the consonants. They also form their oblique cases by the addition of a simple inflection, without the insertion of *n*.

Furthermore, be it observed that *nouns* in general are *weak* and *strong*, in other words, that adjectives are *weak* or *strong*, as well as substantives. Between substantives and adjectives, however, there is this difference.—

1. A substantive is *either* weak or strong, *i. e.* it has one of the two inflections, but not both. *Augó*, = *an eye*, is weak under all circumstances; *warð*, = *a word*, is strong under all circumstances.

2. An adjective is *both* weak and strong. The Anglo-Saxon for *good* is sometimes *gōd* (strong), sometimes *gode* (weak), Which of the two forms is used depends not on the word itself, but on the state of its construction.

In this respect the following two rules are important.—

1. The definite sense is generally expressed by the weak form, as *se blinde man* = *the blind man*.

2. The indefinite sense is generally expressed by the strong form, as *sum blind man* = *a blind man*.

Hence, as far as adjectives are concerned, the words *definite* and *indefinite* coincide with the words *weak* and *strong* respectively, except that the former are terms based on the syntax, the latter terms based on the etymology of the word to which they apply.

§ 177.

Declension of Weak Substantives in Mæso-Gothic

Neuter.

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
Nom.	'Augo (<i>an eye</i>)	'Augona
Acc.	'Augo	'Augóna.
Dat.	'Augin	'Augam.
Gen.	'Augins	'Augóné

Masculine.

Nom.	Manna (<i>a man</i>)	Mannans
Acc.	Mannan	Mannans
Dat.	Mannun	Mannam
Gen.	Mannins	Mannané

	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Plural</i>
<i>Nom</i>	Tuggo (<i>a tongue</i>)		Tuggons
<i>Acc</i>	Tuggon		Tuggons
<i>Dat</i>	Tuggon		Tuggóm
<i>Gen</i>	Tuggons		Tuggonó

Declension of Strong Substantives in Mæso-Gothic.

	<i>Neuter</i>	
<i>Nom</i>	Vauid (<i>a uoid</i>)	Vauida
<i>Acc</i>	Vauid	Vauida
<i>Dat</i>	Vauida	Vauidam
<i>Gen</i>	Vauidis	Vauidē

	<i>Masculine</i>	
<i>Nom</i>	Fisks (<i>a fish</i>)	Fiskos
<i>Acc</i>	Fisk	Fiskans
<i>Dat</i>	Fiska	Fiskam
<i>Gen</i>	Fiskis	Fiske

	<i>Feminine</i>	
<i>Nom</i>	Brups (<i>a bride</i>)	Brups.
<i>Acc</i>	Brup	Brups
<i>Dat</i>	Brupai	Brupin
<i>Gen</i>	Brupsis	Brupē

These may be compared with the Saxon declensions: viz *aúgô* with *eáge*, *nanana* with *nama*, *tuggó* with *tunge*, *vaúrd* with *leáf*, *fisks* with *snið*, and *brups* with *sprece*

Declension of Weak (or Definite) Adjectives in Mæso-Gothic.

	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
<i>Nom</i>	Blindo	Blinda	Blindô
<i>Acc</i>	Blindô	Blindam	Blindon
<i>Dat</i>	Blindin	Blindin	Blindon
<i>Gen</i>	Blindins	Blindins	Blindons
	<i>Plural</i>		
<i>Nom</i>	Blindóna	Blindans	Blindons
<i>Acc</i>	Blindona	Blindans	Blindons
<i>Dat</i>	Blindam	Blindam	Blindom
<i>Gen.</i>	Blindone	Blindanē	Blindono

Declension of Strong Adjectives in Mæso-Gothic

	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
<i>Nom</i>	Blind-ata	Blind-s	Blind-a
<i>Acc</i>	Blind-ata	Blind-ana	Blind-a
<i>Dat</i>	Blind-amma	Blind-amma	Blind-ai
<i>Gen</i>	Blind-is	Blind-is	Blind-áizôs
	<i>Plural</i>		
<i>Nom</i>	Blind-a	Blind-aí	Blind-ôs
<i>Acc</i>	Blind-a	Blind-ans	Blind-os
<i>Dat</i>	Blind-aum	Blind-aum	Blind-aumi
<i>Gen</i>	Blind-aizê	Blind-aizê	Blind-aiozo

<i>Verbs</i>						
<i>Indicative Present</i>			<i>Subjunctive Present.</i>			
	M G	A S		M G	A S	
<i>Sing</i>	1 Sók-ja	Luf-ic	<i>Sing</i>	1 Sók-jáu	} Luf-ige	
	2 Sók-eis	Luf-ast		2 Sók-jâis		
	3 Sok-eiþ	Luf-að		3 Sok-jai		
<i>Plur</i>	1 Sók-jam	Luf-i-að	<i>Plur</i>	1 Sók-jâma	} Luf-odon	
	2 Sok-eiþ	Luf-i-að		2 Sók-jaiþ		
	3 Sók-jand	Luf-i-að		3 Sok-jama		
<i>Preterite</i>			<i>Preterite</i>			
<i>Sing</i>	1 Sók-ida	Luf-ode	<i>Sing</i>	1 Sók-idédjáv	} Luf-ode	
	2 Sók-ides	Luf-odest		2 Sók-idédeis		
	3 Sók-idá	Luf-ode		3 Sók-idédi		
<i>Plur.</i>	1 Sók-dedum	Luf-odon	<i>Plur</i>	1 Sók-idédema	} Luf-odon	
	2 Sok-dédup	Luf-odon		2 Sók-idédeiþ		
	3 Sok-dedum	Luf-odon		3 Sók-idédema		

The Verb Substantive runs thus —

<i>Indicative Present</i>		<i>Subjunctive Present</i>	
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>	<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>
1 Im	Sijum	1. Sij-áu	Sij-âma
2 Is	Si-jup	2 Sij-âis	Sij-âiþ
3 Ist	Si-nd	3 Sij-âi	Sij-âina
<i>Preterite</i>		<i>Preterite</i>	
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>	<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>
1. Vas	Ves-um	1 Vês-jáu	Vês-eima
2. Vas-t	Ves-up.	2 Vês-eis	Vês-eiþ
3. Vas	Ves-un	3 Vês-ei	Vês-eina
<i>Inf</i> Visan			
		<i>Syan</i>	
		<i>Part.</i> Visands	

The greater fulness of the Mæso-Gothic forms is apparent, especially in the plurals of the verbs; which are equivalent to the Latin *ama-mus*, *ama-tis*, *am-ant*, &c.

CHAPTER XXIX

THE KELTIC STOCK OF LANGUAGES, AND THEIR RELATIONS TO
THE ENGLISH

§ 178 THE languages of Great Britain at the invasion of Julius Cæsar were of the Keltic Stock

§ 179 Of the Keltic Stock there are two Branches

The *British* or *Cambrian* Branch, represented by the present Welsh, and containing, besides, the Cornish of Cornwall and the Armorican of the French province of Brittany. It is almost certain that the old British, and the ancient language of Gaul, belonged to this branch.

§ 180.

<i>English</i>	<i>Welsh</i>	<i>Cornish</i>	<i>Breton</i>
<i>Head</i>	Pen	Pen	Penn
<i>Hair</i>	Gwallt	Bleu	Bleo
<i>Eye</i>	Llygad	Lagat	Lagad
<i>Nose</i>	Tiwyn	Tion	Tiy
<i>Mouth</i>	Ceg	Genau	Guenon.
<i>Teeth</i>	Dannedd	Dyns	Dant
<i>Tongue</i>	Tafod	Tavat	Teod
<i>Ear</i>	Clust	Scovoin	Scouain
<i>Back</i>	Cefn	Chem	Chem
<i>Blood</i>	Gwaed	Gut	Goad
<i>Arm</i>	Biaich	Biech	Biech
<i>Hand</i>	Llaw	Lof	Doua
<i>Leg</i>	Coes	Coes	Gari
<i>Foot</i>	Tloed	Tiut	Troad
<i>Nail</i>	Ewin	Ivin	Ivin
<i>Horse</i>	Ceffyl	March.	March
<i>Cow</i>	Buweh	Bugh	Vioch
<i>Calf</i>	Llo	Loch	Leue
<i>Sheep</i>	Dafad	Davat	Danvat
<i>Lamb</i>	Oen	Om	Oan
<i>Goat</i>	Gafr	Gavar.	Chaom
<i>Dog</i>	Ci	Ky	Chr
<i>Fox</i>	Llwynog	Louvern	Louarn
<i>Goose</i>	Gwydd	Gut	Oaz
<i>Crow</i>	Bián	Bran	Vian

<i>English</i>	<i>Welsh</i>	<i>Cornish</i>	<i>Breton</i>
<i>Bird</i>	Adar	Ezn	Em
<i>Fish</i>	Pysg.	Pysg	Pysg
<i>One</i>	Un	Onan	Unan.
<i>Two</i>	Dau	Deu	Daou
<i>Three</i>	Tri	Tiy	Tri
<i>Four</i>	Pedwar	Peswar	Pevar
<i>Five</i>	Pump	Pymp	Pemp
<i>Six</i>	Chwech	Whe	Chuech
<i>Seven</i>	Saith	Seyth	Seiz
<i>Eight</i>	Wyth	Eath	Eiz
<i>Nine</i>	Naw	Naw	Nao
<i>Ten</i>	Deg	Dek	Dec
<i>Twenty</i>	Ugam	Ugemis	Ugent
<i>Hundred</i>	Cant	Cant	Cant

§ 181.

Welsh

MARK 1 1-8

1 Dechreu efengyl Iesu Grist, Fab Duw.

2 Fel vi ysgriflenwyd yn y prophwyd, Wele, yr ydwyf fi yn anfon fy nghennad o flaen dy wyneb yn hwn a barotioa dy ffordd o'th flaen.

3 Llcf un yn llefau yn y diffaethwch, Paottowch ffordd yr Aiglwydd, gwnewch yn uniawn ei lwybiau ef.

4 Y'i oedd Ioan yn bedyddio yn y diffaethwch, ac yn pregethu bedydd edifeirwch, ei maddenant pechodau.

5 Ac aeth allan atto ef holl wlad Judea, a'r Hierosolymitaid, ac a'u bedyddiwyd oll ganddo yn afon y Jorddonen, gan gyfiesu eu pechodau.

6 Ac Ioan oedd wedi ei wisgo â blew camel, a gwiegys croen ynghylch ei lwyngau, ac yn bwyta locustaid a mel gwyllt.

7. Ac efe a biegethodd, gan ddywedyd, Y mae yn dyfod ar fy ol i un cryfach na mi, caiaa esgidiau vi hwn nid wyf fi deilwng i ymostwng, ac i w dattod.

8 Myfi yn wir a ch bedyddiaa chw i â dwf eithr efe a ch bedyddiaa chw i'r Ysbyd Glân.

LUKE XV 11-19

11 Yr oedd gan ryw wr ddau fab :

12 A'i ieuangaf o honynt a ddywedodd with ei dad, *Fy nhad*, dyro i mi y rhan a ddigwydd o'r da. Ac efe a iannodd iddynt ei fywyd.

13 Ac ar ol ychydig ddyddiau y mab ieuangaf a gasglodd y cwbl ynghyd, ac a grannerth ei dauti i wlad bell, ac yno *efe* a wasgaredd ei ddâ, gan fyw yn afiadllawn.

14 Ac wedi iddo ddeulio y cwbl, y cododd newyn mawr trwy y wlad honno, ac yntau a ddechrenodd fod mewn eisien.

15 Ac efe a aeth ac a lynodd with un o ddinaswyr y wlad honno, ac efe a'i hanfonodd ef i w fawrdd i berth moch.

16 Ac efe a chwennychai lenwi ei fol â'i eibau a fwyttai y moch, ac ni roddodd neb iddo.

17 A phan ddaeth atto ei hun efe a ddywedodd, Pa sawl gwas cyflog o'r eiddo fy nhad sydd yn cael eu gwala a'u gweddill o fara, a munnau yn maw o newyn?

18 Mi a godaf, ac a âf at fy nhad ac a ddywedaf witho. *Fy nhad*, pe-hais yn eibyn y nef, ac o th flaen dithau

19 Ac mwyach mid ydwyf deilwng i m galw yn fab i ti gwna fi fel un o th weision cyflog

§ 182 The Cornish literature is of the scantiest. A poem called Calvary, three religious diamas or mysteries, and a vocabulary, are, perhaps, as old as the fifteenth century. Then there is another, a religious drama, by William Jordan—A D 1611, a few songs, a few proverbs, a short tale, two translations of the first chapter of Genesis, which Mr Norriss (the authority for all these statements) says are very poor translations of the Commandments, Belief, and the Lord's Prayer, one of which is called ancient, the other modern; but this (I again quote Mr. Norriss*) without any apparent reason for the distinction

DEUS PATR

Adam ott an puskes,
Ythyn a'n nef ha'n bestes
Kefys yn ty hag yn mor,
Ro thethe aga hynwyn,
Y a thue the 'th worheiamyn,
Saw na byghg y wai nep col

Adam

Yt 'hanwaf bugh ha tarow,
Ha maigh yw best hep paiow
The vap den iag ymweies,
Gavei, yweges, karow,
Daves, wai ve (?) lavarow
Hy hanow da kemeres
Lemyn hanwaf goyth ha yar,
A sensaf cthyn hep par
The vygyens den wai an bey,
Hos, payon, colom, gwygei,
Swan, bargos, byny ha'n er,
Moy diethof a vyth hynwys

Y wf hynwyn the'n puskes,
Poipus, sowmens, syllyes,
Ol thy'm gustyth y a vyth,
Leneson ha baifusy,
Pysk iagof ny ua skvsv
Mar coithaf dev yn peifyth

Deus Pater

Rag bones ol tek ha da
In whed dyth myns yw formys,

* Cornish Drama Vol II Appendix, p 438

Aga sona a via.

May fe seythres dyth lynwys
Hen yw dyth a bowesva
The pup den a vo sylwys,
Yn dysguythyens a henna
Ny a boves desempys

In English

GOD THE FATHER

Adam, behold the fishes,
The birds of heaven, and the beasts,
Equally in land and in sea,
Give to them their names,
They will come at thy command,
But do not mistake them in any sort

Adam

I name cow, and bull,
And hoise, it is a beast without equal
For the son of man to help himself,
Goat, steer, stag,
Sheep, from my words
To take their names

Now I name goose and fowl,
I hold them birds without equal
For food of man on the earth,
Duck, peacock, pigeon, partridge,
Swan, kite, crows, and the eagle
Further by me are named

I gave names to the fishes,
Porpoises, salmon, congers,
All to me obedient they shall be,
Ling and cod,
A fish from me shall not escape
If I honour God perfectly

GOD THE FATHER

For that all is fair and good,
In six days all that is created,
Bless them we will.
Let it be called the seventh day
Thus is a day of rest
To every man that may be saved,
In declaration of that
We will rest forthwith

The Pater-noster.

Older Form

An Taz, ny es yn nef, bethens thy hallow ughelles, gwienz doz thy gulas
ker: Bethens thy voth gwráz yn oar kepaie hag yn nef 10 thyn ny lithow
agan peb dyth bara, gava thyn ny agan cam, kepaie ha gava ny neb es
cam ma erbyn ny, nyn homfiek ny en antel, mez gwyth ny the worth diok
rag gans te yn an mighterneth, an cleveland, hag an' worryans, byz a venitha

Newer Form

Agan Taz heb ez en nev beingas beth de hauno, gurra de gulasketh deaz, de roth beth gwiez en' oai poka en nev, io dony luthow agan pyb dyth bara, ha gava do ny agan calmow, pokaia ny gava an gy leb es cam ma war bidn ny, ha na dege ny en antal, brez gwitha ny dort dioge rag an mychtheyneth ew chee do honnen, ha an cwydei ha an worryans, rag bisqueth ha bisqueth.

§ 183.

Annals of Eves-Breague

MARK 1 1-8

- 1 Deiou Aviel Jezuz-Krist, mab Doué
- 2 Ével m'az eo skrivet gand ar profed Izanaz Chetu e kasann va éal duâg da ziemm péhmi a aozô ann hend enn da iaok
- 3 Mouez ann hui a leñv el leac'h distro Aozid hend ann Aotrou, gñit ma vézô eeun hé wenodenmou
- 4 Iann a ioa el léac'h distro ô badezi, hag ô prezezi badu-iant ar bnyen évid distaol ar béc'hejou
- 5 Hag holl vio Judea, hag holl dud Jeruzalem a zeue d'hé gavout hag e oant badezet gand-han é ster a Joridan, goude beza ansavet ho fec'héjou
- 6 Ha Iann a ioa gwisket gand bleo kanval, gand eun gouriz ler war-dio d'he groazel, hag e tebie kaleic'haden ha mel gouez Hag e prezege, o lavarout.
- 7 Eunn all a zeñ war va leic'h hag a zô kreoc'h egéd-oun ha na zellezann ket, ô stoum dua-z-han, duerea hamm hé voutou
- 8 Me em euz liô padezet enn dou, hōgen hen liô padézo ei Spéied-Santel.

LUKE XV 11-19

- 11 Eunn den en doa daou vab
- 12 Hag ai iaouanka anézho a lavaraz d'hé dād Va zād, rô d'in al loden zanvez a zigouéz d'in Hag hen a iannaz hé zanvez gand-hô
- 13 Hag eunn nébeñd devesiou goude, ai mab iaouanka, ô véza dastumet kémenñ en doa, en em lekéaz cun hent evit mond c'tezeg eur vro bell meur-bed, hag eno é tispiñaz he zanvez o véva gand gadélez
- 14 Ha pa en doé dispiñet kémenñ en doa, e c'hoarvezaz eunn naounégez viâz er vrô-zé, hag e teuz da ézommékaat
- 15 Kuid ez éaz eta, hag en em lakaad a reaz e gopi gand eunn dén euz ar vro Hag he-man hen kasaz enn eunn ti d'ézhan war ai meaz, évit mcsa ar mōc'h
- 16 C'hoanteed en divijé leñva hé gof gand ar c'hlosou a zebéré ar mōc'h ha dén na rôé d'ézhan
- 17 Hōgen ô véza distrōed d'ézhan hé unan, e lavaraz A béd gōpraer zo é ti va zād hag en deñz bara é leiz, ha mé a varv aman gand aun naoun
- 18 Sével a iunn, hag éz iun étéze va zad, hag e livirinn d'ézhan Va zad, péc'hed em eñz a éneb ann énv hag enn da enep,
- 19 N'ounn két talvoudék pelloc'h da véza galved da vab. va zigémer ével unan eñz da c'hōpraerinn.

§ 184. The *Gaelic* or *Erse* Branch, represented by the present Irish Gaelic, and containing, besides, the Gaelic of the Highlands of Scotland and the Manks of the Isle of Man.

<i>English</i>	<i>Irish</i>	<i>Scotch</i>	<i>Manks</i>
<i>Head</i>	Cean	Ceann	Klone*
<i>Hair</i>	Folt	Folt	Folt
<i>Eye</i>	Súil.	Suil	Sooil
<i>Nose</i>	Sion	Siom	Stiom
<i>Mouth</i>	Beul	Beul	Becal
<i>Tooth</i>	Fiacal	Fiacal	Feeackle
<i>Tongue</i>	Teanga	Teanga	Chengey
<i>Ear</i>	Duas	Duas	Cleaysh
<i>Back</i>	Dium	Dium	Dicem
<i>Blood</i>	Fuil	Fuil	Fuill
<i>Arm</i>	Gandean	Gandean	Chingan
<i>Hand</i>	Lamh.	Lamh	Lave
<i>Leg</i>	Cos	Cos	Cass.
<i>Nail</i>	Iongna	Iongna	Ingin
<i>Horse</i>	Each	Each	Agh
<i>Ox</i>	Eo	Bo	Booa
<i>Calf</i>	Laogh	Laogh	Lheiy
<i>Sheep</i>	Caor	Caor	Keyrey
<i>Lamb</i>	Uan	Uan	Eayn
<i>Goat</i>	Gabhair	Gabhair	Goayr
<i>Dog</i>	Cu	Cu	Coo
<i>Fox</i>	Sionnach	Sionnach.	Shynnagh.
<i>Goose</i>	Geodh	Geodh	Guy
<i>Crow</i>	Feannog	Feannag	Feeagh
<i>Bird</i>	Ban	Eun	Eean
<i>Fish</i>	Iasg	Iasg	Eeast
<i>One</i>	Aon	Aon	Unname
<i>Two</i>	Do	Dha	Dhaa
<i>Three</i>	Ti	Ti	Tee
<i>Four</i>	Coathai	Cutham	Kiae
<i>Five</i>	Cuig	Cuig	Queig
<i>Six</i>	Se.	Se	Shey
<i>Seven</i>	Seacht.	Seachd.	Shuaght
<i>Eight</i>	Ochit	Ochd.	Hoght
<i>Nine</i>	Naon.	Naoi	Nuy.
<i>Ten</i>	Deich	Deig	Jeih
<i>Twenty</i>	Fitché.	Fichead	Feed
<i>Hundred</i>	Cead	Cead.	Keead

MARK 1 1-8

- 1 To-sach shioisgeil Iosa Chrìost, Mhac Dé,
- 2 Mar ata seinnibhtha annsua faidhribh, Feuch, cumm mo theachdaire romhad, noch ullmhachas do shlighe romhad
- 3 Guth an ti eunhigheas ar an bhfàsach, Ollmhughadh shlighe an Tighearna, deannadh a chasam dìreach
- 4 Do bh Eom ag bairdeadh an an bhfàsach, agus ag seanmón bhaisdigh na hathrighe do chum marthmhaichais na bpeacadh
- 5 Agus do chuaidh tu Iudaighe uile, agus luchd Ierusalem a mach chuge, agus do bairdeadh lùsair uile a sruth Iordann, ag admhail a bpeacadh

6 Agus do bhí Eom ar na éadughadh do ruamneach cáinhal, agus críos leathan timcheall a leasluigh agus a se biadh do ithcadh se, locmudhige agus mil choilteanhal,

7 Agus do ruine se scamóin ag iadh Tig an dhuighsi neach is neartmhune na misi, ag nach fu me cromadh agus iallach a blióg do sgáiladh

8 Go deimhin do bhaist misi sibh le h-uisge, acúd cheana baistfidh seirion sibh leis an Spiorad Náomh

LUTH XV 11-19

11 Do bhá laí dias mac ag dune áirighe

12 Agus a dubhant an ti dob oige ara le n' oihan Athair talhan dhannh an chuid iorthas m'it dod mhaóin Agus do roinn seirion a mhaóin cat aia

13 Agus tai cis bheagán annsine ag crumrugadh a choda uile don mhac dob oige, do chuadh sé an coirigh a dtailan nachuim, agus do dhionbail se sa uim a mhaóin lé na bheathadh báotachathfígh

14 Agus tai éis a choda uile do chaitheamh dhó, deargh goita ionclor ann sa tir sin, agus do thosaigh seirion si bheith a machd aia

15 Agus do mthigh sé iomhe agus do cheangal se e tom do chaitheamh-theor don ti sin, noch do chum fá na dhuithe a mach é do bheathadhachd mne

16 Agus lá mhuin leis a bhí do honadh do na fithleoguibh do rithis na nua agus m thugadh eundume dhó aia

17 Agus an tan do chuimhugh se an tom a dubhant se, Gá mhed do luchd thuasdaí mathaisa agá bhíul romacaidh aia, agus misi ag dul a mughla le goita!

18 Eneochadh mé agus iachadh me dionnsughe mathai, agus deamuid mé iis, A athair, do pheacaigh me a naghadh nemhe agus ad fhuadhuis

19 Agus m'it mé feasda do mhacsa do gharin dhóin deana mé mai áon dod luchd thuasdaí

§ 185.

Scotch Gaelic

MARK I 1-9

1 Toiseach Soisgeil Iosa Críost Mhac Dhé

2 A ien mai a ta e scriobhta anns na fadhbh, Feuch, cumeam mo theachdan e iomh do ghnuis, a dh'ulluicheas do shlighe iomhad

3 Guth an ti a dh'eigheas anns an fhasach, Ulluichbh shlighe an Tighearna, deanaibh a cheumanna dteach

4 Bhia Eom a' baisteadh anns an fhasach, agus a' searmonachadh baistidh an athreachtas, chum marthanais pheacanna

5 Agus chaidh a mach d'a ionnsuidh ti Judea uile, agus luchdarteachaidh Ierusalem agus bhaisteadh leis iad uile ann an aithuinn Iordain, ag aidaichadh am peacanna

6 Agus bhia Eom an eudachadh le fionna chamhal, agus críos leathair m'a leasuidh agus bu bhíadh dha locust agus mil fhuadhuis

7 Agus shearmonach e, ag iadh, A ta neach a' teachd a m' dhéighi a's cumhachdaiche na mise, neach nach auidh mise an cromadh síos agus bair-iail a bhíog fhuasgladh

8 Bhaist mise gu dearbh sibh le h-uisge ach baistidh esan sibh leis an Spiorad Naomha

LUKE xv 11-19

11 Bha aig dume àraidh dithus mhac
 12 Agus thubhant am mac a b'òige dhrubh i'a athair, Athair, thour dhomhsa
 a' chuid ionn a thig orm do d' mhaom Agus roinn e eatonia a ltheatha-
 chadh

13 Agus an déigh beagam do lathibh, chuinnich am mac a b'òige a chuid
 uile, agus ghabh e a thurus do dhuthaich fad an astar, agus an sin chaith e a
 mhaom le beatha stuiddheasach

14 Agus an uair a chaith e a chuid uile, dh'éirich gorta ro mhòr san tì
 sin, agus thoisich e n bli ann an uneasbhuidh

15 Agus chaidh e agus cheangail se e féin n aon do shaoidhaomibh na
 dacha sin agus chun e d'a fheanann e, a bhuadhadh mhuc.

16 Agus bu mhuann leis a bhu a lionadh do na plaosgaibh a bha na mucaan
 ag itheadh, oir cha d'thug neach air bith dha

§ 186.

Manks

MARK i 1-8

1 Toshuaght sushtal Yeesey Ciest, Mac Yee

2 My te scrut ayns ny phadeyryn, Cummy-nei, tee mee cur my haghter
 ionish dty eddyn, dy chuaitaghey dty raad Kiongyrt ihyt

3 Coraa fei geannagh ayns yn aasagh, kiatee-jee raad y Chuain, jean-jee
 cassanyen echey jeeragh

4 Ren Ean bashtey ayns yn aasagh, as preacheil bashtey ayns, son leih
 peccaghyn

5 As hie magh hugger oolley cheei Yudea as cummaltee Yerusalem, as
 v'aa oolley ei nyn mashtey horish ayns awin Yordan, goalbrish nyn becca-
 ghyn

6 As va Ean coamrit lesh garmad jeh fynney Chamel, as lesh cryss hare
 mysh e veeghyn, as v'eh beaghey e locustyn as mill feie

7 As ien eh preacheil, gra, Ta fei s'pooal na mish cheet myyei, kiangley
 ny bhaagyn echey cha vel mee feeu dy chroymmey sheese as dy eaysley

8 Ta mish dy jarroo er vashtey shuu lesh ushtey agh bashtee eshyn shuu
 lesh y Spyrryd Noo

LUKE xv. 11-19

11. Va daa vac ec doonney dy iow

12 As dooyrt fer saa rish e ayr. Ayr, cur dooys yn ayin dy chooid ta my
 chour, As rheyun eh e chooid onoo.

13 As laghyn my lug shen, hymsee yn mac saa oolley cooidjagh as ghow
 eh jurnah gys cheer foddey, as ayns shen hug ed jummal er e chooid horish
 baghey rouanagh

14 As tra va oolley baarit echey, dnee genney vooar ayns y cheer shen,
 as ren eh toshuaght dy ve ayns feme

15 As hie eh as dail eh-hene rish cummaltagh jeh'n cheei shen, as hug
 eshyn eh magh gys ny magheryn echey dy ne son bochilley muckey

16. As by-vian lesh e volg y lluceney lesh ny bleaystyn va ny muckyn dy ee
 as cha row doonney erbee hug cooney da

17 As tra v'eh er jeet luggey hene, dooyrt eh, Nagh nhimney shavnant
 fault t'ec my ayr ta nun saie arran oc, as foohagh, as ta mish goll mow laccal
 beaghey!

18 *Tiog-ym oirym*, as *hem ioym gys my ayr*, as *yei-ym ish*, *Ayi, tam ee ei n yannu peccah noi mau*, as *kiongovit ihyt's*

19 *As cha vel mee ny-sodjey feeu dy ve emmyssh dty vac*, *dell ihy m myr rish fei jeh dty harvaantyn fault*

In all these samples we must allow for differences of orthography which conceal a certain amount of likeness

§ 187. Taken altogether the Keltic tongues form a very remarkable class. As compared with those of the Gothic stock they are marked by the following characteristics —

1. *Scantiness of declension* — In Irish there is a peculiar form for the dative plural, as *cos* = *foot*, *cosaibh* = *to feet* (*pedibus*), and beyond this there is little else whatever in the way of *case*, as found in the German, Latin, Greek, and other tongues. Even the isolated form in question is not found in the Welsh and Breton.

2. *The agglutinate character of their verbal inflections*. — In Welsh the pronouns for *we*, *ye*, and *they*, are *ni*, *chwyi*, and *hwynt* respectively. In Welsh also the root = *love* is *car*. As conjugated in the plural number this is —

car-wn = *am-amus*.

car-ych = *am-atis*.

car-ant = *am-ant*.

Now the *-wn*, *-ych*, and *-ant*, of the persons of the verbs are the personal pronouns, so that the inflection is really a verb and a pronoun in a state of *agglutination*; i. e. in a state where the original separate existence of the two sorts of words is still manifest. This is probably the case with languages in general. The Keltic, however, has the peculiarity of exhibiting it in an unmistakable manner; showing, as it were, an inflection in the process of formation, and (as such) exhibiting an early stage of language.

3. *The system of initial mutations*. — The Keltic, as has been seen, is deficient in the ordinary means of expressing case. How does it make up for this? Even thus. The noun changes its initial letter according to its relation to the other words of the sentence. Of course this is subject to rule. As, however, I am only writing for the sake of illustrating in a general way the peculiarities of the Keltic tongues, the following table, from Prichard's *Eastern Origin of the Keltic Nations*, is sufficient

Câi, a kinsman

- 1 form, *Câi agos, a near kinsman*
- 2 *Ei gâr, his kinsman*
- 3 *Ei chà, her kinsman*
- 4 *Vy nghâr, my kinsman*

Tâd, a father

- 1 form, *Tâd y plentyn, the child's father*
- 2 *Ei dâd, his father*
3. *Ei thâd, her father*
4. *Vy nhâd, my father.*

Pen, a head

- 1 form, *Pen gwr, the head of a man*
- 2 *Ei ben, his head.*
3. *Ei phen, her head.*
- 4 *Vy mhen, my head*

Gwâs, a servant

1. form, *Gwâs fydhlon, a faithful servant*
- 2 *Ei wâs, his servant*
3. *Vy ngwas, my servant*

Duw, a god

- 1 form, *Duw trugarog, a merciful god*

2 form, *Ei dhuw his god*3 *Vy nuw, my god.**Baia, bread*

- 1 form, *Baia canu, white bread*
- 2 *Ei vara, his bread*
- 3 *Vy maia, my bread*

Lhaw, a hand

- 1 form, *Lhaw wenn, a white hand*
- 2 *Ei law, his hand*

Mam, a mother

- 1 form, *Mam duon, a tender mother*
- 2 *Eivam, his mother*

Rhwyd, a net

- 1 form, *Rhwyd lawn, a full net*
 - 2 *Ei rwyd, his net*
- From the Eise

Suil, an eye

- 1 form, *Síul*
2. *A hui, his eye.*

Slante, health

- 2 form, *Do hlante, your health*

§ 188 *The ancient language of Gaul**—The evidence in favour of the ancient language of Gaul being Cambrian rather than Gaelic, lies in the following facts —

The old Gallic Glosses are more Welsh than Gaelic

a. *Petrorritum* = a four-wheeled carriage, from the Welsh *peier* = four and *rhod* = a wheel. The Gaelic for four is *ceathair*, and the Gaelic compound would have been different.

b. *Pempedula* the cinque-foil, from the Welsh *pump* = five, and *Julen* = a leaf. The Gaelic for five is *cuir*, and the Gaelic compound would have been different.

c. *Cundetum* = a measure of 100 feet, from the Welsh *cant* = 100. The Gaelic for a hundred is *cead*, and the Gaelic compound would have been different.

d. *Epona* = the goddess of horses. In the Old Armorican the root *ep* = horse. The Gaelic for a horse is *each*.

e. The evidence from the names of geographical localities in Gaul, both ancient and modern, goes the same way: *Nantuates*,

* From a Paper of the late Mr Garnett's, in the *Transactions of the Philological Society*.

Nantouin, *Nanteuil*, are derived from the Welsh *nant*=a *culley*, a word unknown in Gaelic.

f The evidence of certain provincial words, which are Welsh and Armorican rather than Erse or Gaelic.

g. (?) An inscription on an ancient Keltic (?) tablet found at Paris, A D 1711, and representing a bull and three birds (cranes), is TARWOS TRI GARANOS Now, for the first two names, the Gaelic affords as good an explanation as the Welsh, the third, however, is best explained by the Welsh.

Bull = *tarw*, Welsh; *tarbh*, Gaelic.

Three = *tri*, Welsh; *tre*, Gaelic.

Crane = *garan*, Welsh, *corr*, Gaelic.

CHAPTER XXX.

ON THE CLASSIFICATION OF THE GERMAN GROUP OF LANGUAGES.

§ 189. UP to the present chapter the statements of the author respecting the mutual relations which the different languages of the German group bear to each other, have been anything but tabular, systematic, or classificational. No general view of the family has been given—no such view as the naturalist gives of an order, a family, or a genus with sub-genera. No division into primary and secondary sections and sub-sections has been attempted, nor yet has much been said about *stems* and *stocks* falling into *branches*, whilst the *branches* divide into *ramifications* and similar sub-divisions, with names more or less metaphorical. Indeed, the language of the genealogist—the talk about *roots* and *pedigrees*—has been carefully eschewed. Nevertheless, it has not been found convenient to discard it altogether; inasmuch as more than one term has been found necessary which has suggested the existence of a greater amount of systematic classification than has been exhibited. Such a term is the word *Scandinavian* (or *Norse*): a word which is evidently

the generic name for a natural group of tongues, more or less akin to those of Germany Proper, but, at the same time, more or less different from them.

Such a word as this indicates the likelihood of such a system as the following.—The Gothic class (or stock) falls into two orders (or branches)—The Proper German, and the Scandinavian or Norse. Again—The German Proper contains the High-German, Platt-Deutsch, Dutch, &c., whilst the Norse contains the Icelandic, Swedish, and Danish. Each of these falls into dialects and sub-dialects. No doubt, this is, to a great degree, the case. Yet it is also equally undoubted that the view which would illustrate it has been kept in the back-ground.

Instead of this, our notices have been to the effect that the Frisian was likest the Dutch, the Dutch likest certain Platt-Deutsch dialects, certain Platt-Deutsch dialects likest certain High-German ones—and so on throughout.

The reason of this lies in the importance of rightly measuring the extent to which a systematic classification of languages, dialects, and sub-dialects into primary, secondary, and other subordinate divisions is an actual philological phenomenon. *Can* languages be thus conveniently arranged? *Can* tabulated exhibitions of them be constructed? If they can *not*, it is certainly a serious error to think that they *can*. It is a serious error, because it engenders the idea that definitions of an unattained, or perhaps unattainable, degree of clearness and precision are practicable. It is a serious error, because it substitutes lines of demarcation and distinction for lines of connection and transition; so subverting the true and natural principles of philological arrangement, and replacing them by false and artificial ones. Hence, the chief method by which the mutual affinities of the German tongues have been shown, has been the exhibition of the points wherein one language agreed with another, and that other with some third, that third with a fourth—and so on.

This, however, is the plan of the present and later editions only. It was not the plan of the earlier ones. Therein, the exhibition of the mutual relationships of the German forms of speech took the following shape:—

Of the great German stock, there were—

Two branches; the *German Proper* (or *Teutonic*), and the *Scandinavian* (or *Norse*)

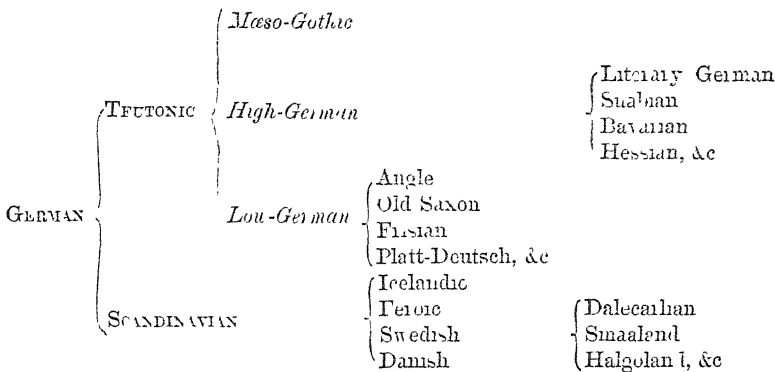
The *Teutonic* branch fell into

Three divisions, (1) the *Mæso-Gothic*, (2) the *High German*, and (3) the *Low-German*.

The *Low-German* comprised (1 and 2) the *Anglo-Saxon* and the *English*, (3) the *Old Saxon*, (4 and 5) the *Old Frisian* and *Modern Dutch*, (6) the *Platt-Deutsch* dialects.

The *Scandinavian* branch comprehended the *Icelandic*, *Feroic*, *Swedish*, and *Danish*, with their dialects and sub-dialects in all their stages

In a tabular form such a system as this might be expressed thus.—



This is a classification which actually exists, being that which we find in the works of Grimm, Rask, and the chief philologues for the German family of languages. No one has adopted it more implicitly than the present writer—*up to a time*. Yet it is exceptionable, so exceptionable that, unless it be abandoned, it must be taken with great caution and considerable qualifications. Of these the naturalist, whether zoologist or botanist, best understands the character. He anticipates it, seeing the difficulties it has a tendency to engender beforehand. It has a tendency to engender the notion that all the forms of speech comprehended in the same division are more like each other than they are to any one in any other. Yet such is not the case. The *Platt-Deutsch* runs into the *High-German*, and the *Frisian* is as much *Dutch* as *Anglo*. It is only the extreme forms of each section that are widely separated from each other, and definitely characterized.

§ 190 The truth is that, whatever may be the case when our knowledge shall have come to be enlarged, we must, at the present moment, classify according to *types* rather than *defi-*

nitions; contrasting and comparing the typical and central members of each group With this proviso the tabular form is safe, without it dangerous.

§ 191. Akin to this question of classification, or rather part and parcel of it, is the still more difficult one of the *value of characteristics*. Some writers lay great stress upon the absence or presence of certain sounds, in other words, upon the Phonêsis of Languages. Others, on the other hand, think but little of a few vowels and consonants more or less, and accordingly attend chiefly to something else At times, this is the inflection or grammatical structure; at times it is the dictionary or glossarial part of the language. "Such a language," writes A, "has a passive voice, which some other" (naming it) "has not, hence, I separate them somewhat widely."

"But their sound-systems are alike," writes B, "and, consequently, I unite them" A practical instance of this kind of criticism will show itself after we have looked at some of the more usual characteristics of the different German forms of speech,—some of those which lie most on the surface.

1 The use of *p* and *k* for *b* and *g* respectively is High-German rather than Low, and of the High-German dialects more particularly Bavarian

<i>Common High-German</i>	<i>Bavarian</i>	<i>English</i>
<i>Beig</i>	<i>Pin</i>	Hill (<i>beig</i>)
<i>Baier</i>	<i>Paier</i>	Bavaria
<i>Blind</i>	<i>Plint</i>	Blind
<i>Gott</i>	<i>Kott</i>	God
<i>Ge-burg-e</i>	<i>Ke-pink-i</i>	Range of hills, &c

2. The use of *-t* or *-tt* for *-s* or *-ss* is Low-German, in opposition to High; as—

<i>Platt-Deutsch.</i>	<i>High-German</i>	<i>English</i>
Water	Wasser	Water
Swët	Schweiss	Sweat
Het	Es	It

3 The Frisian chiefly differs from the Old Saxon and Anglo-Saxon in the forms of the plural noun and in the termination of the infinite mood. Thus —

The plurals which in Anglo-Saxon and Old Saxon end in *-s*, in Frisian end in *-r*; and the infinitives, which in Anglo-Saxon and Old Saxon end in *-an*, in Frisian end in *-a*.

<i>Anglo-Saxon</i>	<i>Frisian</i>	<i>English</i>
Cyning-as	Kenning-ar	King-s
Bæin-an	Bæin-a	Bun.

4 In Norse the preference for the sound of -r to -s, and of -a to -an is carried further than even in Frisian.

5. But the great characteristics of the Norse tongues, as opposed to the Frisian, and, *à fortiori*, to all the others, are the so-called passive voice, and the so-called post-positive article

a The reflexive pronoun *sik* = *se* = *self* coalesces with the verb, and so forms a *reflective* termination. In the later stages this reflexive (or middle) becomes passive in power *Kulla* = *call*, and *sig* = *self*. Hence come *kalla sig*, *kallasc*, *kallast*, *kallas*, so that in the modern Swedish *jag kallas* = *I am called* = *vocor*.

b. The definite article in Norse not only *follows* its substantive, but amalgamates with it, *e. g.* *bord* = *table*, *hit* = *the* or *that*; *bord-et* = *the table* (*board*)

What is the *value* of any one of these characteristics? He is a bold philologue who answers this question offhand.

§ 192 The *value* of a characteristic is not only an obscure and difficult question in itself, but the *measure of value* is so unfixed as for practical purposes to be wholly arbitrary.

Question. "Why do you lay so much stress upon, or, changing the expression, put so *high* a value on, the presence of a post-positive article?"

Answer. "Because it implies some important fact in the history of the development of the tongues wherein it appears. It implies that the tongues wherein it occurs were separated from those wherein it does not occur at an early period. If so, the relationship must be distant"

"Not so," it may be replied, "the separation may be but recent, in which case it only shows a considerable amount of activity in the processes by which language is changed."

"But this is itself important, so that, consequently, the sign is of value under either point of view." No doubt it is. At the same time the measure of value is uncertain and fluctuating, inasmuch as all that has been shown in the preceding dialogue is, that under either of two views, a case can be made out for the importance of a certain characteristic. A sign that a lan-

guage has changed quickly is of value and interest, and so is a sign of a language having separated itself from some mother-tongue common to it and certain other forms of speech at an early period.

Nevertheless, it is bad philology to deal with the two facts as equal and indifferent, and to argue at one time from the one, and at another from the other.

§ 193. All these difficulties are increased when we bring under notice, and add to our other points of criticism, the important question of *time*, inasmuch as the same exceptions that lie against any overclose classification in the way of order and genus, stem and branch, division and sub-division, lie against any unduly strict lines of demarcation between the different *stages* of a language; indeed, in this field of study more than usual circumspection is required. It is an easy matter to take a specimen from the reign of (say) King John, and another from that of our present Queen, and compare them—easy, too, to arrive at certain results from such a comparison. There will be likeness and there will be difference, there will be the older forms and the newer ones. And the latter will be supposed to have followed, succeeded, or grown out of the former; as, in many cases, they will have done. But in many cases they will not. What if the two samples not only belong to two different periods, but to two different dialects also? In such a case the sequence, or succession, though nearly linear, is not so altogether. Whether the proximity of the two lines may not be sufficiently close to make the difference immaterial, is another question. For most purposes of investigation it is so—for most, but not for all.

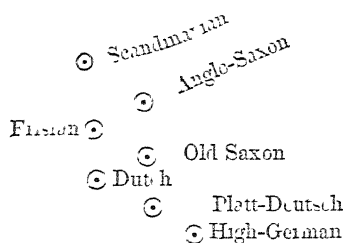
A little consideration will show that the *à priori* view of the relationship that languages bear to each other favours this principle of classification. We cannot but suppose that the streams of population by which certain portions of the earth's surface have been occupied were *continuous*. In this case a population spreads from a centre, like a circle on a still piece of water. Now, if so, *all changes must have been gradual, and all extreme forms must have passed into each other by means of a series of transitional ones*. It is clear that such forms, when submitted to arrangement and classification, will not come out in any definite and well-marked groups, but that, on the contrary, they will run into each other with equivocal points of contact and

indistinct lines of demarcation ; so that discrimination will be difficult, if not impracticable. If practicable, however, it will be effected by having recourse to certain typical forms, around which such as approximate most closely can most accurately and conveniently be grouped. When this is done, the more distant outliers will be distributed over the debateable ground of an equivocal frontier. But as man conquers man, and occupant displaces occupant on the earth's surface, forms and varieties, which once existed, become extinct. The more this extinction takes place, the greater is the obliteration of these transitional and intermediate forms which connect extreme types, and the greater this obliteration, the stronger the lines of demarcation between geographically contiguous families. Hence a variational modification of a group of individuals simulates a difference of species, forms which were once wide apart being brought into juxtaposition by means of the annihilation of the intervening transitions.

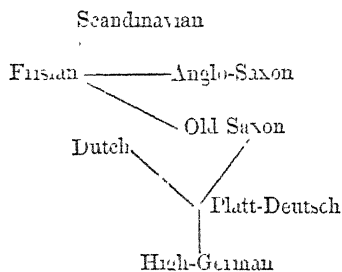
As a general rule, the more definite the class the greater the displacement ; and the smaller the differences of dialect the later the diffusion of the language. Such, at least, is the *prima facie* view.

In Paris we hear French, in Madrid, Spanish ; in Languedoc, Gascony, and Bearn an intermediate language. But what will be the case when the provincial forms of speech on each side of the Pyrenees have been replaced by the literary languages of the two great kingdoms of France and Spain ? The geographical contact of two typical, if not extreme, forms of speech.

§ 194 For the German group of tongues (*minus* the Mæso-Gothic, of which the relations are obscure), the following series of circles and lines may serve as illustrations. The dot in the middle of each circle represents the form of speech to which the name by its side applies in its typical form, anterior to its diffusion. The outline of the circle itself circumscribes the fresh points over which the language of the centre is supposed to have spread itself ; the original forms of speech there prevalent being departures from the strict type of the centre, and, in proportion as they are so, approximations to something else. This is the case with the Anglo-Saxon and the Frisian on one side, and the Old Saxon on the other. The points, on the other hand, represent the localities where there is the *maximum* amount of difference



The lines give us the directions in which certain forms propagated themselves



§ 195 It may not be unnecessary to add that, whatever may be the exceptions taken to the ordinary classification into divisions and sub-divisions (the exceptions to which are provisional rather than absolutely valid), the points of contact between the different members of the German group are those that philologists in general admit. They admit, for instance, that the Platt-Deutsch dialects touch the High-German on one side and the Old Saxon and Dutch on the other; that the Frisian is closely akin to the Saxon, and, above all, that it is the most Scandinavian of all the German forms of speech.

The present writer, too, admits that the division between the two primary branches of the family—the Scandinavian and the German Proper, is, if not absolutely natural, a near approach to nature; inasmuch as it is, probably, not very wrong to say that all the languages in the former division are more like each other than any one of them is to any form of speech from Germany Proper. Nevertheless, he hesitates—and that, because, whatever measure of value he may take as to the importance of the two leading Scandinavian characteristics—the so-called Passive Voice, and the Post-positive article—he sees less in them than is seen by the majority of investigators.

Let us examine them—taking the former first.

§ 196 It is called a Passive, but it has grown out of a *Middle* form, which *Middle* has grown out of a combination of two words—viz. the active, or transitive verb, and the pronoun of the third person.

In this there is nothing extraordinary, every process being capable of the clearest and most appropriate illustration. The older forms of the Icelandic give us not only the conjunction of the *third* person with the verb, but that of the *first* person also. Thus whilst *mið* = *me*, *þú* = *thee*, and *sá* = *se*. The ejection of the vowel, the change from *-sc*, to *-st*, and lastly, the loss of the *t* are points of phonésis

The use of the pronoun of the *third* person to the displacement and exclusion of those of the first and second is a point of logic. How comes such a combination as the verb + *þú* to have become wholly, and such a combination as the verb + *mið* to have become nearly, obsolete so long ago as the twelfth and thirteenth centuries? for such is the date of the early Icelandic literature. Whatever may be the exact nature of the confusion of idea that thus extended the use of the *sá* in Icelandic at the expense of the other two pronouns, it gives us a phenomenon which reappears elsewhere in the Greek, the High-German, and the Lithuanian, *at least*.

It cannot, then, be said that a formation so naturally evolved as the so-called passive voice of the Scandinavian languages is a philological characteristic of very high value, a philological characteristic which effects between the languages wherein it is found, and the languages wherein it is not found, any notably broad line of demarcation.

§ 197. And, now, let us consider the peculiar position of the definite article, the article which may conveniently be denominated *post-positive*. Undoubtedly it is a very palpable characteristic, and one which tells a great deal upon the language, as any one may discover for himself who passes from the study of the English or German to that of the Danish, Swedish, or Icelandic. It makes the reader look to the end of the word where he has hitherto looked at the beginning, putting the sequence of his ideas, more or less, out of joint. It gives, too, compactness to the Scandinavian sentences, and enriches the metres with a large amount of the so-called trochaic feet.

Undoubtedly this *post-positive* article is a very palpable characteristic. Yet it is very doubtful whether it be the measure of any important phenomenon in the way of evolution or de-

velopment It is very doubtful whether it indicates any long separation in time between the languages wherein it occurs and the languages wherein it is wanting It is also doubtful whether it says that any inordinate amount of change took place within a comparatively short period. It is a peculiarity easily evolved, *i. e.* without any extraordinary activity of the processes by which languages are changed, and without any extraordinary length of the time for the working of the usual changes at an average rate. It is safe to say that a period of five or six centuries is long enough for its development—long enough, and, perhaps, more than long enough. How do we get at this? for the statement is something better than a mere guess, is something better than a mere *à priori* speculation We get at it by certain phenomena supplied by the history of the Latin language and the languages derived from it A hundred years before our era none of these latter had any existence beyond the Italian Peninsula. Five hundred years A D, there were no less than four new growths, one in France, one in the Spanish Peninsula, one in Switzerland, and one in the Danubian Principalities Now, of these, the first three formed their definite articles after the fashion of the Germans Proper—viz the French, the Spaniards (and Portuguese), and the Swiss of the Grisons. And the original Romans did the same But the fourth formed their articles after the fashion of the Scandinavian, the Wallachian, and Moldavian equivalents to *l homme, il huomo, and el hombre*, being *homul* (= *hom-ul* = *homo ille*)

In this, then, we have a form which has been developed since the conquest of Dacia—in the reign of Trajan.

§ 198. As the relationship of certain languages has been illustrated by circles and lines, the *stages* may be similarly exhibited by lines and points.

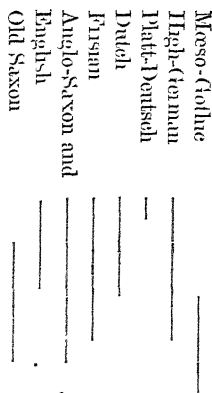
Let the points and lines that run vertically represent the period between the fourth and nineteenth centuries, the lines denoting the time to which the different samples of the different forms of speech are referrible

Some begin soon, but soon cease, *e. g.* the Moeso-Gothic; which we find as early as the fourth century, but lose before we reach the sixth.

Some come down late and begin late, *e. g.* the Dutch and Platt-Deutsch.

The Anglo-Saxon extends through nearly the whole period; but—

The Old Saxon neither ascends so high as the Mæso-Gothic, nor comes down so low as the others.



The more these lines are kept distinct the better the philology.

CHAPTER XXXI.

ON CERTAIN POINTS OF NOMENCLATURE.

§ 199 THE last chapter dealt with the question of classification; the present takes cognizance of certain points of nomenclature. The extent to which such remarks are necessary or superfluous may be collected from the remarks themselves. The words which will command our attention are the following—1 Gothic. 2. German. 3 Dutch. 4 Teutonic. 5. Anglo-Saxon. 6, 7 Icelandic and Old Norse.

§ 200. *Gothic and Mæso-Gothic*—This is a name (perhaps, we may say *the name*) for the *genus* of which such forms of speech as the High-German, the Danish, the English, &c. are *species*. Such, at least, is the language we may use for the sake of illustration, even though in some points it may be exceptionable. *Gothic*, then, is a generic name.

With the prefix *Mæso-* it becomes specific, denoting the particular language of the Ulphiline Translation. *Mæso-* is from *Mæsia*, the name of the present countries of Servia and Bulgaria during the later periods of the Roman history. In the fifth century the *Lower Mæsia* was occupied by a German population. That this gave us the *German*s of Mæsia, or Mæso-

Germanus, is evident. Whether, however, it gave us a population that is either correctly or conveniently called the *Goths* of Moesia, or *Moeso-Goths*, is another question.

No grave exception lies against the use of the word *Mæsson* as applied to the language of Moesia in the time of Ulphilas—no *grave* exception. The likelihood of its being supposed to denote the original vernacular tongue of Moesia, as spoken before the German invasion, is of no great importance in the way of an objection. Still, it is an objection as far as it goes.

What are the merits or demerits of the word *Gothic*? Its merits are the following.—

It is in current use.

It cannot easily be replaced if thrown out of use. Say that we substituted for it the word *German*. The following inconvenience would arise. It would have one power when it applied to the *class*, and another when applied to particular languages of Germany as opposed to Scandinavia.

It is, to a certain extent, correct; *but only to a certain extent*. That the speakers of the language of the Ulphiline translations were called *Goths* at a period not later than the third century, and by a population not less important than the Roman, is generally and reasonably believed.

It has as good a claim as any other word equally specific in its origin to take an extension of power, and to enlarge itself into a more general term. Even though other members of the family to which the speakers of the language of the Ulphiline translation belonged were of equal historical importance with the *Goths* of Moesia, the latter have in their favour the highly important fact of their language being the one which supplies us with the earliest specimens of the group to which it belongs. The Ulphiline translations are the earliest Gothic, or German, compositions extant.

§ 201. The question, then, as to the demerits of the word is complex; neither are the facts which it includes beyond doubt. They are doubted, however, by no one so much as by the present writer.

He holds that the term *Gothic*, as applied to the Germans of Moesia, is as ethnologically incorrect as the term *Briton* applied to the Angles of *Britannia*—and that for the same reason. The invaders of neither country took their names with them. On the contrary, they took them from the countries to which they went; having left their own under different ones. That

no *Britons*, under that name, left Germany to conquer Britannia is universally admitted. That no Goths, under that name, left Germany to conquer Moesia is not universally admitted. It only ought to be. The fact is as follows:—Just as a certain country which was called *Britannia* long before it became German, engendered the name *Britain*, which certain *Englishmen* occasionally adopt, did a certain country, of which the original occupants were the *Getæ*, attach to certain invaders the name *Goth-i*, a name which they never bore at home, which they cannot be shown to have adopted themselves, and which (when all is said about it that can be said) was only a *Roman* name for those occupants of the country of the *Getæ*, who in the fourth and fifth centuries were of German origin.

If this be true, the objections against the word *Goth*, as applied to a German of Moesia, are the objections against the word *Briton* as applied to an Angle of the Heptarchy. They lie against the name even in its more limited sense. *A fortiori*, they lie against it in its general sense. It would be wrong to call the East Anglians Britons; but it would be wronger still to call the Hessians or the Westphalians so.

But though incorrect, the word may be convenient, or at least, allowable. This was the case with the word *Mæsiæ*, a word against which, though an objection lay, it was only a slight one—too slight to be of much practical importance, inasmuch as Moesian philology and Moesian history, so far as they are other than German, is *nil*—or nearly *nil*. But it is not so.

For reasons exhibited elsewhere, I have long satisfied myself that the history of a population, at one and the same time, other than German, and, yet more truly Gothic than any Germans ever were, is no obscure and unimportant history at all, but, on the contrary, a history of great interest and influence, a history of which the vast area bounded by the Gulf of Bothnia on the one hand, and the Indian Ocean on the other, was the field.

§ 202. *German*.—The chief points concerning this name are—

1. That it was, originally, no national name at all, but one given to the nations on the East and North of Gallia by the Romans, the Romans having, probably, taken it from the Gauls.

2. That, with few exceptions, it has applied to the Germans Proper of Germany. Except in philology and ethnology, we do

not find either English or Scandinavian writers calling their countrymen *Germans*.

3. That the two German divisions most generally meant, when the word is used in a limited sense, are the Franks and Alemanni.

4. That the words *Frank* (or *Francic*) and *Alemann* (or *Allemannic*) have been occasionally used as synonymous with *German*.

5. That the origin of the word *Germani*, in the Latin language, is a point upon which there are two hypotheses.

a. That it is connected with the Latin word *Germani* = *genuine*.

b. That it grew out of some such German word as *Herman*, *Irmín*, *Wehrmann*, or the *Herm-* in *Hermunduri*, *Hermiones*, &c

Neither of these views satisfies the present writer, who as little believes the word to have been of *native*, as he believes it to have been of *Roman*, origin. It by no means follows that because the Romans called a certain population by a certain name, that that name was Roman. Strabo, from whom we get the notion, was not only a Greek, but a Greek who gives his view of the origin of the word more in the way of an etymological fancy than aught else. his statement and text being as follows. —

"The parts immediately beyond the Rhine, beyond the Kelts, and turned towards the east, the *Germani* occupy, differing but little from the Celtic stock, chiefly in their excess of wildness, size, and yellowness. In size, habits, and manner of life, they are as we have described the Kelts to be. Hence, the Romans seem to me to have given them their name on good grounds, wishing to designate them as the *genuine* Gauls. For in the Roman speech *German* means *genuine* "—

Εὐθὺς τοίνυν τὰ πέραν τοῦ Ῥήνου μετὰ τοὺς Κελτοὺς πρὸς τὴν ἑω κεκλιμένα Γερμανοὶ νέμονται, μικρὸν ἐξαλλάττοντες τοῦ Κελτικοῦ φύλου, τῷ τε πλεονασμῷ τῆς ἀγριότητος καὶ τοῦ μεγέθους, καὶ τῆς ξανθοτητος· τὰλλα δὲ παραπλήσιοι καὶ μορφαῖς, καὶ ἥθεσι, καὶ βίοις ὄντες, οἷους εἰρήκαμεν τοὺς Κελτοὺς. Διὸ δίκαιά μοι δοκοῦσι Ῥωμαῖοι τοῦτο αὐτοῖς θέσθαι τοῦνομα, ὡς ἂν γνησίους Γαλάτας φράξεν βουλόμενοι· γνήσιοι γὰρ οἱ Γερμανοὶ κατὰ τὴν Ῥωμαίων διάλεκτον.

The name *German* seems not to have been of Roman—
Nor yet of native origin.

Although, the Romans and the Gauls knew the populations beyond the Rhine by a certain *collective* term, no such common *collective* term seems to have been used by the Germans themselves. *They had none*. Each tribe had its own designation,

or, at most, each kingdom or confederation. Only when the question as to what was common to the whole country, in opposition to what was *Roman* or *Gallic*, became a great practical fact, did a general ethnological term arise, and this was not *German* but *Dutch*.

This is a common phenomenon. In Hindostan we hear of the wilder mountaineers of Orissa and the Bengal country under the names of Khond and Kól; and this is a collective term. But it is only this in the mouth of a Hindú or an Englishman. Amongst themselves the separate names of the different tribes is all that is current.

The evidence of Tacitus is strong upon the point. Speaking upon their origin, he writes.—

“Celebiant carminibus antiquis (quod unum apud illos memorie et annuum genus est) Tuistonem deum terrâ editum, et filium Mannum, originem gentis conditoresque Manno tres filios adsignant, e quorum nominibus proximi Oceano Ingævones, medi Hermiones, ceteri Istævones vocentur. Quidam autem licentiâ vetustatis, plures deo ortos, pluresque gentis appellationes, Maisos, Gambriivos, Suevos, Vandalos adiungunt, eaque vera et antiqua nomina. Ceterum Germaniæ vocabulum recipiunt et nuper additum quoniam qui primi Rhenum transgressi Gallos expulerint, ac nunc Tungri, tunc Germani vocati sunt, ita nationis nomen, non gentis evasisse paullatim, ut omnes primum a victorie ob metum, mox à seipsis invento nomine, Germani vocarentur.”

Notwithstanding the words “à seipsis invento nomine,” I believe the word German to have been of *Gallic* origin, so that, whilst the Germans had no *collective* name at all, the Romans called them as they were called by their neighbours—the neighbours through whom they (the Romans) more especially came in contact with them—their neighbours the Gauls.

§ 203 The *first use* of the word is *early* in one sense, *late* in another. It is *early* if we look only to the date of the events with which it is connected. It is *late* if we look to the historian who records it. This distinction is necessary, though often overlooked. The earliest date assigned to a given event is one thing: the earliest historian who mentions such an event is another. A very early event may be recorded by a very late historian. Now the word *Semi-germanis* was applied to certain nations who came across Hannibal as he crossed the Alps; the historian who tells us being Livy.

Again—the nation of the Bastarnæ took a prominent part in the wars of Philip, the father of Perseus, against the Romans. Persuaded to become his allies, they cross the Danube; Cotto,

one of their nobles, being sent forward as ambassador. They enter Thrace. The Thracians retire to Mount Donuca Here the Bastarnæ divide Thirty thousand reach Dardania The rest cross the Danube homewards This is what Livy tells us.

Strabo's evidence is more remarkable

Ἐν δὲ τῇ μεσοπαίᾳ Βαστάρναι μὲν τοῖς Τυριγέταις ὄμοροι καὶ Γερμανοῖς, σχεδόν τι καὶ αὐτοὶ τοῦ Γερμανικοῦ γένους ὄντες, εἰς πλείω φύλα διηρημένοι Καὶ γὰρ Ἄτμονοι λέγονταί τινες, καὶ Σιδόνες, οἱ δὲ τὴν Πεύκην κατασχόντες, τὴν ἐν τῇ Ἰστρῷ νῆσον, Πευκινολί.

This has given the Bastarnæ great prominence in ethnology ; since they have the credit of being the first Germans mentioned *by name* in history.

Thirdly—In the *Fasti Capitolini* for B C 222, occurs the following entry —“ M CLAUDIUS M. F. M. N. MARCELLUS AN DXXXI. COS. DE GALLEIS INSUBRIBUS ET G[ER]MANIS K. MART. ISQUE SPOLIA OPI (ma) RETTULIT DUCE HOSTIUM VIR (domaro ad Cla) STID (ium interfecto) ”—*Græv. Thes. Antt. Rom.* ii. p. 227

This is a notice of some pretension. Polybius, however, calls the allies of the Insubrian Gauls not Germans but *Gæsatæ*. More than this—the record itself is not above suspicion The part of the stone which contains the letters ER has been repaired, “and” (the extract is from Niebuhr) “whether ER was put in at random, or whether it was so on the original stone, I can neither assert nor deny. I have often seen the stone, but although a friend of mine wished me particularly to ascertain the truth, I was never able to convince myself whether the corner containing the syllable is part of the original stone or not. It is evident that the name cannot have been Cenomanis, since they were allied with the Romans, and the *g* is quite distinct *Gonomani* does not occur among the Romans If the author of these *Fasti* actually wrote *Germanis* the nation is mentioned. The thing is not at all impossible.”—Lecture LVIII. Dr. L Schmitz's edition.

The word *German*, then, is more probably of *Gallie* than of either native or Roman origin. It was introduced into English through the Latin, *German* and *Germany* being translations of *Germanus* and *Germania*. In France, Italy, and Spain, the equivalent terms are *Alemagne* and *Lamagna*, from the Latin *Alemanni*. Hence, the words in question, however convenient in Great Britain, are of *English* rather than *European* currency.

More upon this point, however, will be considered, when we have noticed two other terms—*Dutch* and *Teutonic*

§ 204. *Dutch* — *Germany* is not the name by which a German denotes his own country. He calls it *Deutschland*. Neither is it the name by which a Frenchman designates *Germany*. He calls it *Allemagne*. Whence the difference? The different languages take different names for one and the same country from different sources. The German term *Deutsch* is an *adjective*; the earlier form of the word being *diutisc*. Here the *-isc* is the same as the *-ish* in words like *self-ish*. *Diut*, on the other hand, means *people*, or *nation*. Hence, *diut-isc* is to *diut*, as *popularis* is to *populus*. This adjective was first applied to the *language*, and served to distinguish the *popular*, *national*, *native*, or *vulgar* tongue of the populations to which it belonged from the Latin. It first appears in documents of the ninth century —

“Ut quilibet episcopus honoris apertè transferre studeat in rusticam Romanam linguam aut *Theotiscam*, quo tandem cuncti possint intelligere quæ dicantur” — *Synodus Turonensis*, A. D. 813

“Quod in lingua *Theudisca* scæflegi, id est armorum depositio, vocatur” — *Capit. Wormatiense*

“De collectis quas *Theudisca* lingua heinszuph appellat.” — *Conventus Siliacensis*

“Si, *barbara*, quam *Teutiscam* dicunt, lingua loqueretur” — *Vita Adalhardi*, &c., D. G., i. p. 14, Introduction

As to the different forms in which either the root or the adjective appears, the most important of them are as follows:

1. In *Mæso-Gothic*, *piudiskô* = *ἐθνικὸς* — *Galatians* ii. 1; a form which implies the substantive *piuda* = *ἔθνος*.

2. In Old High-German, *diot* = *populus*, gives the adjective *diutisc* = *popul-aris*

3. In Anglo-Saxon we have *peōd* and *peōdisc*

Sometimes this adjective means *heathen*; in which case it applies to religion and is opposed to *Christian*.

Often it means *intelligible*, or *vernacular*, and applies to language; in which case it is opposed to *Latin*.

The particular Gothic dialect to which it was first applied was the German of the Middle Rhine. Here the forms are various — *theodisca*, *thrudisca*, *theudisca*, *teudisca*, *teutisca*.

When we reach parts less in contact with the Latin language of Rome, its use is rarer. Even the Germans of the Rhine frequently use the equivalent term *Alemannic*, and *Francic*; whilst the Saxons and Scandinavians never seem to have recog-

nized the word at all. Hence it is only the Germans of *Germany* that are *Theotisci*, or *Deut-sche*. We, of England, apply it only to the *Dut-ck* of Holland.

§ 205 Up to a certain time in its earlier history the term *Dutch* (*Teutisca*, *Theodisca*, &c) is, to a certain degree, one of disparagement, meaning *non-Roman* or *vulgar*. It soon, however, changes its character, and in an Old High-German gloss—*uncadruti* (*ungideuti*) = *un-dutch* is translated *barbarus*. The standard has changed. Barbarism now means a departure from what is Dutch. Nevertheless, originally *Deutsche* = *vulgar*. Hence, like *high* as opposed to *low*, *rich* to *poor*, &c, the word *Deut-sch* was originally a *correlative* term—i. e. it denoted something which was *popular*, *vulgar*, *national*, *unlearned*—to something which was not. Hence, it could have had no existence until the relations between the learned and lettered language of Rome, and the comparatively unlearned and unlettered *vulgar tongue* of the Franks and Alemanni had developed some notable points of contrast. *Deut-sche*, as a name for *Germans*, in the sense in which it occurs in the *ninth* century, was an impossibility in the *first*, or *second*. This is not sufficiently considered. Many believe that the *Teut-*, in *Teutones*, is the *deut-*, in *deut-sch*. To be this *exactly* is impossible. Any German tribe that called itself *peuda*, *drot* or *deoð* in the first century must have given a different meaning to the word, and, so doing, have called themselves *homines*, *heroes*, or by some term equally complimentary.

The present national sense of the word is wholly secondary and derivative. Originally it was no more the name of a people or a language than the word *Vulgate*, in the expression *the Vulgate translation of the Scriptures*, is the name of a people or a language.

§ 206. *Teutonic*—The history of this word is closely connected with that of the preceding, inasmuch as both have the same combination of letters for their first syllable, viz T E U T. On the other hand, the final syllables are different. Are the two words the same? The common element TEUT is in favour of their being so. Again,—about the tenth century the Latin writers upon German affairs began to use not only the words *Theotiscus* and *Theotiscé*, but also the words *Teutonicus* and *Teutonicé*. Upon this Grimm remarks that the latter term sounded more learned, since *Teutonius* was a classical word, an adjective derived from the Gentile name of the Teutones.

conquered by Marius. This is likely enough. At any rate, no fact is more certain than that, about the time in question, the Germans were called, indifferently, either *Theotisci*, or *Teutonici*. What does this prove? That the word *Teutonicus* (= *Theotiscus*) came from the classical term *Teutones*. Admitting this, I by no means believe that, *on the strength of their name*, the *Teutonici* (= *Theotisci*) were of the same stock with the classical *Teutones*; neither does the similarity prove that they were. I doubt whether it even *implies* so much—*v. e.* when taken alone. Its application, however, at the time in question, to populations unequivocally German, and its use as a synonym with *Dutch* (*Theotiscus*), do more than the name itself. The name itself proves no more than is proved by the presence of the root *L-t*, in the words *Læti*, and *Latini*, names from which no one has argued that the *Latins* and *Læti* were the same.

Of far greater importance than the use of the word *Teutonicus* in the tenth century is its use in the first and second—its use by the classical writers. Did they use it as equivalent to German? Some did—Velleius Paterculus most especially. Nevertheless, the usual meaning of the word *Teutones* in the classical writers is to denote a population identical with, or similar to, the *Teutones* conquered by Marius. This it meant, and nothing more. In like manner the adjective *Teutonicus* meant *after the fashion of the Teutones*. I imagine that if a poet of the times in question were asked what he meant by the epithet, such would be his answer. That he would say that *Teutonicus* was only another word for *Germanicus*, and that the *Teutones* were *Germans*, I do not imagine, admitting, however, that a geographer or historian might do so. At present, the classical rendering of *Teutones* and *Teutonici* is *like the men whom Marius conquered*—whoever they were. Of course, this term connoted something else. It was applied to the colour and texture of the hair; so that we read of *Teutonici capilli*. It was applied to the manner of throwing javelins, so that we hear of men who were—

“*Teutonico ritu soliti torquere cæteas*”—*Æneid*, lib. vii. l. 741.

It was applied to several other characteristics besides. Now, even if we admit all these to be common to the *Teutones* and *Germans*, we get no evidence as to the two words bearing the same meaning. All that we get is the fact that *Teutonicus*

meant *like the men conquered by Marius*, and that these had certain points in common with the Germans

Hence—the question as to the German origin of the *Teut-ones* must be discussed chiefly on its own merits, and, to a great extent, independently of the fact of the words *Teutonic* and *Dutch* having been used as synonyms, for it has already been remarked that it was quite impossible for the *Teut-* in the classical word *Teut-ones*, and the *Teut-* in the medieval form *Teut-iscus*, to be one and the same word, with one and the same meaning. The *Teut-* in *Teut-iscus* could have no existence until the contrast between the Latin as a learned, and the German as an unlearned, language had become prominent and familiar to both Germans and Latins. On the other hand, the *Teut-* in *Teut-ones* appears far too early for anything of the sort.

The syllables *Vulg-*, and *Belg-*, are quite as much alike as *Teuton-*, and *Deut-sch*, yet how unreasonable it would be for an Englishman to argue that he was a descendant of the *Belgæ* because he spoke the *Vulgar Tongue*! *Mutatis mutandis*, however, this is the argument of many of the German writers—though not of all. Are we then to say that it is only *some* of the German writers who identify the *Deut-sch* and the *Teut-ons* on the strength of the name? We can scarcely do this. As far as my own reading and experience go, I can safely say that I have never yet met a German, who, in some way or other, either consciously or unconsciously, did not argue from the similarity of name to the descent of his countrymen from the men who fought against Marius. He has done this even though he has not been exactly guilty of the error just indicated. Nor has he done it upon unreasonable though (in my mind) insufficient grounds.

Though the *Teut-* in *Teut-ones* is not the *Teut-* in *Teut-iscus* in its secondary sense of *vulgar* or *popular*, as opposed to *learned* and *cultivated*, it may still be the same word with its primary meaning of *people*. It is by no means unlikely for an invading nation to call themselves *the nation*, *the nations*, *the people*, &c. Neither, if a German tribe had done so, would the word employed be very unlike *Teuton-es*. Although the word *piud-a* = *nation* or *people*, is generally strong in its declension (so making the plural *piud-ôs*), it is found also in a weak form with its plural *thiot-ûn* = *Teuton-*. See *Deutsche Grammatik*, i. 630

Again—we have the *Saltus Teut-o-bergius* mentioned by Tacitus (*Annal* lib i. p. 60) Whatever may be the power of

the *Teut-* in *Teutones*, it is highly probable that here it means *people*; in other words, that it is the *Teut-* in *Dut-ch*, and that in its primary sense *populus* rather than *vulgus*. It means either *the hill of the people*, or *the city of the people*; according as the syllable *-berg-* is derived from *bairgs* = *a hill*, or from *baürgs* = *a city*. In either case the compound is allowable, e.g. *diot-wee*, *public way*, Old High-German, *thiod-scatho*, *robber of the people*, Old Saxon, *peód-cyning*, *peod-meare*, *boundary of the nation*, Anglo-Saxon; *piód-land*, *piód-vegr*, *people's way*, Icelandic. The evidence, then, is reduced to the mere fact of the first syllable in *Teut-ones*, probably meaning *people*, whilst (if so) it was a German gloss. That *people*, however, was actually its meaning is only a probability. There is not a tittle of external evidence on the point. But, supposing that there were, it would by no means follow that because it was a German word it was *exclusively* so. The root *p-ll* (*v-lg*) is equally Slavonic and Latin—*pull* = *vulg-us*, as well as the German *folk*.

Such are the reasons against too much stress on the root *Teut-* in *Teut-ones*. Let us now take the rest of the evidence. Velleius Paterculus has been noticed. Tacitus makes no mention of the *Teutones* at all. Ptolemy mentions both *Teut-onarii* and *Teut-ones*. The former looks like a German word, it being probable that the *-arii* = *wære*. If so, *Teuton-* is the name of a place. The localities of both these populations are other than German rather than German. Again—admitting *Teutonarii* to be a German word, it is by no means certain that it applies to a German population.

The remaining evidence in favour of the Teutones having been German lies in their connection with the Cimbr. What is the proof of these having been German? In nine cases out of ten the discreditable answer is, "their connection with the evidently *Dutch Teutones*"—an answer that shows that the reasoning is in a vicious circle.

The doctrine to which the present writer has long committed himself is as follows—for certain reasons, the knowledge of the precise origin and locality of the nations conquered by Marius was, at an early period, confused and indefinite. New countries were made known without giving any further information. Hence, the locality of the Cimbri was always pushed forwards beyond the limits of the geographical areas accurately ascertained. Finally, their supposed locality

retrograded continually northwards, until it fixed in the districts of Sleswick and Jutland, where the barrier of the sea, and the increase of geographical knowledge (with one exception) prevented it from getting further

This view arises out of the examination of the language of the historians and geographers as examined in order, from Sallust to Ptolemy.

§ 207 *Anglo-Saxon*—The *Lingua Anglorum* of Beda is translated by Alfred *on Englisc*. So old is the word *English* This is the commoner term. At the same time the word *Saxon* is in use—*fures quos Saxonice dicimus* vergeld-peovas—See § 6.

Why do we call the older stages of the English Language Anglo-Saxon, when they are so clearly English? This question is ably urged by a writer in the *Gentleman's Magazine* for April and May, 1852, who would replace the ordinary nomenclature in the following manner—

- 1 A.D. 550-1150 *Old English*
- 2 — 1150-1350 *Early English*
- 3 — 1350-1550 *Middle English*
- 4 — 1550-1852 *New English*

The writer who first uses *Anglo-Saxon* is Paulus Diaconus. He means by it the Saxons of *England*, as opposed to the Saxons of Germany. Its present power is widely different from this.

§ 208. *Icelandic, Old Norse*—Although *Icelandic* is the usual name for the mother-tongue of the Danish, Swedish, and Norwegian, the Norwegian philologists generally prefer the term *Old Norse*

In favour of this view is the fact that Norway was the mother-country, Iceland the colony, and that some portions of what is called Old Icelandic was composed in Norway. Still the reason is insufficient; since the present term *Icelandic* is given to the language not because Iceland *was* the country that *produced*, but because it *is* the country that has *preserved* it

Suppose that, whilst the Latin of Virgil and Cicero in Italy had been changing into the modern Italian, in some old Roman colony (say Sardinia) it had remained either wholly unaltered, or else, altered so little as for a modern *Sardinian*—provided he could read at all—to be able to read the authors of the Augustan age, just like those of the era of Victor Emmanuel; no other portion of the old Roman territory—not even Rome itself

—having any tongue more like to that of the classical writers than the most-antiquated dialect of the present Italian. Suppose, too, that the term *Latin* had become obsolete, would it be imperative upon us to call the language of the Classics *Old Italian*, *Old Roman*, or at least *Old Latin*, when no modern native of Rome, Latium, or Italy could read them? Would it be wrong to call it *Sardinian*, when every Sard *could* read them? I think not. *Mutatis mutandis*, this is the case with Iceland and Norway.

§ 209 *The question of convenience.*—The chief subject in connection with the names that have just passed under review has been the theoretic propriety, or impropriety, of them. It is, however, nearly certain that this will have but little to do with their adoption and currency. The practical facts of most importance in this way are (1), the extent to which a given form is actually in use, and (2), its convenience or inconvenience.

a Gothic—The word *Gothic* is more current than convenient. At the same time, it is chiefly inconvenient to the general philologue, to the systematic ethnologist, and to the special investigator of history of the *Sarmatian* stock. For the comparatively limited field of German philology, it is well nigh unexceptionable. For this reason it is likely to keep its place longer than it deserves. The present writer is more vexed by it, than, perhaps, any one else, yet he must take it as he finds it, however desirous of replacing it by the term *German*.

b. Dutch—The English and continental powers of the word are difficult to reconcile. In English it means the language of Holland, as opposed to that of Germany. In Germany it means *German*. Then there are the further complications arising out of the term *Hoch-Deutsch* (*High-Dutch*), and *Platt-Deutsch*. It is doubtful whether these difficulties would be met by returning to the original *English* power of the word, which was (to a certain extent) identical with the modern German. It was so to a certain extent, inasmuch as in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries *High-Dutch* meant the present literary German, *Low-Dutch* meaning the Dutch of Holland—the Dutch of *Holland* rather than the *Platt-Deutsch* dialects of Germany Proper. The simple form *Dutch* is an inconvenient name for the language of Holland. The compound *Low-Dutch* is also inconvenient. The most correct name, the name current both in Germany Proper and Holland, is *Netherlandish*; but this is a compound which

is unpleasing to the English ear, sounding too like the dyslogistic term *outlandish*. *Netherlandic* is hybrid—i. e. English in respect to its first three syllables, Greek in respect to its last *Flemish*, if the Dutch of Holland would consent to use it, would, perhaps, prove a useful term, for it must be remembered that, in *philology*, when we talk of the Dutch (of Holland) we also mean the Flemish (of Belgium). Both must be denoted by the same word. The name that, individually, I find most convenient for the Dutch of Holland and of Belgium, as opposed to the *High-German* and *Platt-Deutsch* of Germany, is *Batavian*.

c. d. The two other words (*High-German* and *Platt-Deutsch*) are also convenient—though objections of no small weight lie against them. In the first place—

1 They are more or less correlative terms. Nevertheless, the difference of form disguises this correlation.

2 Secondly.—*Platt-Deutsch* is an absolutely foreign word, a foreign word, too, which is nearly sure to be mispronounced.

Be it so. The words are, still, convenient. We may learn this by trying to mend them.

Say *High-German* and *Low-German*.—This means too much, since *Low-German* is used as a generic term, including the *Platt-Deutsch* dialects, and a great deal more, viz. the English, and the Dutch of Holland. Or—

Say, *High-Dutch* and *Low-Dutch*.—The word *Low-Dutch* suggests the Dutch of Holland (the *Batavian*). Or—

Say, *Hoch-Deutsch* and *Platt-Deutsch*.—We get two foreign words instead of one.

Upon the whole, the three best names seem to be (1), *High-German*, (2) *Platt-Deutsch*, and (3) *Batavian*.

e *Teutonic*.—As opposed to *Norse* or *Scandinavian*, the word is useful. In this case it denotes the languages of Germany Proper, Holland, and England as opposed to the Danish, Swedish, &c. In short, it is a convenient name for the primary division of the so-called Gothic (German) stock.

f *Saxon*.—*Anglo-Saxon*.—*Angle*, *English*, &c.—Theoretically the views of the author already referred to are strictly correct, and they are, of course, strengthened by the doctrine (if sound) of the present writer.

As to the foreign origin of the word *Saxon*, the only objections that lie against it are practical. Even if the terms *Anglo-Saxon* and *Semi-Saxon* be got rid of, there is the *Old Saxon* to be dealt with. When an unexceptionable term for this has be-

come current, the word *Saxon* may safely be ejected from German Philology.

g Scandinavian, Norse, &c—The first of the terms would be unnecessary if it were not for the tendency of the other to occasionally engender a certain false notion.

Scandinavian means the languages of the northern branch of the Gothic (or German) stock, as contrasted with the *Teutonic*. So doing, it means the Danish as well as the Swedish, and the Swedish as well as the Norwegian—also the Feroic and the Icelandic.

Now *Norse* may mean this also; but it may also mean *Norwegian* as opposed to Swedish, *Norwegian* as opposed to Danish, *Norwegian* as opposed to Icelandic

On the other hand, *Scandinavian* is inconvenient. Its power in Philology is different from its power in Geography. In Philology it includes Denmark. No one would hesitate in saying that the Danish was one of the Scandinavian languages. In Geography (generally at least) it excludes Denmark. Few would say that in visiting Copenhagen they were visiting Scandinavia. Scandinavia, in *Geography*, means Sweden and Norway.

If the nomenclature for the northern branch of the Gothic (or German) stock were likely to be settled in England, rather than between the Danes, Swedes, Norwegians, and Icelanders, the question would be a simple one. *Scandinavian* might be eliminated altogether, *Norse* might replace it, and *Norwegian* denote the Norse of Norway, just as *Danish*, *Swedish*, and *Icelandic* would denote that of Denmark, Sweden, and Iceland.

But this is not likely to be the case. Meanwhile the Norwegian philologues eschew the word *Icelandic* and use *Old Norse* instead, the Danes demurring to the substitution.

Of the literature thus designated some portion was undoubtedly Norwegian rather than Icelandic.

Another portion was undoubtedly Icelandic rather than Norwegian.

A third is of uncertain origin.

This third portion the English philologue most conveniently calls *Old Norse* (or simply *Norse*). The second he conveniently calls *Old Icelandic*. The first he conveniently calls *Old Norwegian*.

What the scholars, however, of the countries most interested

in the matter will do is uncertain. It is only certain that by calling everything Old *Norse* the nomenclature for the special and proper Old *Norwegian* is impaired.

Now this is by no means a matter of indifference. On the contrary, certain peculiarities of the special and proper Norse of Norway (the Old Norwegian) require notice. One of them is the important form *-sc* instead of *-st*, as the sign of the so-called passive voice—a form of pre-eminent value, inasmuch as it points to the origin of a passive voice in a middle, of a middle in a reflexive, and of a reflexive in the combination of the verb and pronoun.

This chapter, along with the one which preceded it, has been written for the sake of indicating the extent to which both the classification and the nomenclature of the German stock of languages are matters that we should reconsider rather than acquiesce in. There is much to be done even in the arrangement of our subject-matter and the naming of our tools.

CHAPTER XXXII.

MINUTE INVESTIGATION CONCERNING THE ORIGINAL LIMITS OF THE ANGLE AREA —*ENGLE* A NON-SIGNIFICANT NAME —TIME AND PLACE —APPROXIMATIONS. —SLAVONIC FRONTIER —THE LOMBARDS — DANISH FRONTIER. — FRISIAN FRONTIER. — THE HOCINGS AND HNEF.

§ 210. WHAT has preceded has been, for the greater part, a criticism of the current accounts of the Angle invasion, and the matters allied to it, an exposition of the chief materials upon which it has been founded, along with a notification of the method pursued. A few remarks upon certain points of nomenclature and classification followed. The present chapter, and the ones which follow it, concluding what we may call the *origines* of our language, will be devoted to certain questions of a more speculative nature; questions which are indicated rather than answered. This being the case they stimulate further inquiry, and point out the direction in which it may best be taken up.

§ 211 What may be called the *minute* ethnology of the Angle area comes first: of the Angle area in its most limited sense.

There were numerous near congeners of the Angles, but near relationship is not, *eo nomine*, Anglehood.

Let our researches be ever so successful, they can but give an approximation. This is because there is a question of time as well as place in every detail of geography. A boundary, except it be a physical one, and one which enables us to talk of islands, mountains, degrees of latitude and the like, *as such*, is essentially uncertain, fluctuating, and indeterminate. being one thing at one time, another at another.

The England of the century before the Angle invasion of Britain need, by no means, have the same boundaries with the England of the century that followed it. But what if the date of the Angle invasion itself be uncertain? Upon the principle that truth more readily emerges out of error than out of confusion, I shall take the middle of the fifth century, *i e* A.D. 450, for the date of this event—a date in which it is clear that there are several conventional elements. Without going further than the fact of its being a particular year at all, and (as such) implying a single event, rather than a series, we may see this. Still it is both convenient and approximate.

§ 212. What was the Angle area in Germany A.D. 450—the Angle area *eo nomine*? The name itself will help us but little. In many of the terms by which the different divisions of the German population, and the soil of Germany are denoted, we have an instrument of criticism. Sometimes, the term itself is significant. Sometimes it is still in existence. Whatever may be the difference of opinion as to the exact meaning of such a name as *Harudes*, no one who connects it with the word *heorut* = *forest*, would seek for the population which bore it in a treeless fen or on a naked heath. Neither would any one who knew of the existence of such words as *Angarii*, and *Boructuarii*, as the names of definite localities in the time of the Franks, find much difficulty in dealing with the classical expressions *Bructeri*, *Angrivarii*. *Engle*, however, or *Angle*, carries with it nothing that can help us. Few believe that it means the men of the *Angulus*. Few, too, even of those who connect it with the district called *Anglen*, believe that that was the *whole* of the Angle country. There is nothing, then, in the word itself to help us. That it was a *native* denomination, we infer from the name of our own island: without which it might have been an open question whether *Engle* was a name by which its bearers desig-

nated themselves, or whether it was one which was applied to them by their neighbours. As for any spot in Germany preserving, at the present time, or having preserved to the time of true and authentic history, any definite sign of its original Angle population, the evidence is *nil*.

Still *Angle* or (*Engle*) is a native name; *i. e.* a name by which the men and women who bore it called themselves; not a name given them by their neighbours.

It seems to have been the name of a *people* rather than a place. This means that *Angle* meant the *Angles* in its first power, *the country of the Angles* in its second. It was a word like *Wales*—concerning which see § 27.

§ 213 Was it a generic or a specific name? Did the term cover a number of other subordinate names, or did it mean simply a certain population which called itself Angle and nothing else—nothing else, at least, in the first instance? No general answer can be given to this; inasmuch as the following is the doctrine concerning it.

1. When the Angles came out as active agents in history, with a separate substantive history of their own, as the conquerors of Britain, and when they spoke of themselves and told their own story, it was specific, *i. e.* it excluded even their nearest conquerors, such as the Friesians.

2. When the Britons, Romans, and Franks spoke of them, it was scarcely a name at all. It was a subordinate term to *Saxon*; which applied to the Angles, only *inter alios*.

3. When the earlier writers, such as Strabo and Tacitus spoke of them, it had a general import; and *Angle* meant the particular population which called itself so, *plus* others.

If so, it was generic, specific, or subordinate according to time and place, *i. e.* according to the population which used it, and the time at which it was used.

§ 214 *Slavonic frontier*—For the Angle area, with the word at once specific and native, we must get at our result by the way of exclusion. What was other than Angle? The Angles were, on their northern, eastern, or north-eastern frontier, in contact with the Slavomans of the valley of the Elbe, these latter being the most north-western members of their family, just as the Angles were the most north-western of theirs. I do not, however, hold that, for the whole extent of the frontier, the Angles were thus in contact with the Slaves. I only hold that, for one part of it (and that the northern), there was nothing German in contact

with Slavonia, which was other than Angle. This, then, involves the question of the Slavonic boundaries. The Germans of the fifth century touched the Elbe at two points at the very most—possibly at only one, but certainly at no more than two. They certainly touched it at some point between Hamburg and the sea. They probably touched it at the parts about Magdeburg. The Germans who touched it below Hamburg were Angles. The Germans who probably touched at the parts about Magdeburg were Lombards. Between these two points lay a great western projection of the Slavonic area constituting what is now Altmark and Luneburg.

How far westward the Slaves of Luneburg, who bore the name Linones, and gave the name to the district, extended, is uncertain. Those whose language has been alluded to lay in the east of the Duchy, in the parts about Wustrow, Luchow, and Danneberg, and on the very verge of the Elbe. For a Slavonic population, however, of the eighteenth century this is a very westerly locality. How much further it may have reached in the eighth!—further still in the seventh, the sixth, or the fifth! There is no difficulty in bringing it, and that within a comparatively recent period, to the river Ilmenau, as far as which the village names are notably, and to a considerable extent, Slavonic. Beyond it, however, they are scarce. Nevertheless, one name—that of the little river Bomlitz—is found as far to the east as the parts about Verden, *i. e.* on the western edge of the Duchy. Taking this along with the fact of the word *Luneburg* being derived from *Limon-es*, I am inclined to give the whole of the district so called to those parts of Germany from which the early Angles are to be excluded.

The presumption suggested by the known facts of the historical period is in favour of the Slavonic frontier having, as a general rule, receded rather than advanced; in other words the later we make the date the more to the east lies the boundary, and (*vice versâ*) the earlier the date the more it protrudes westward. The evidence, then, of Luneburg having been Slavonic at a late period is a presumption in favour of some district west of Luneburg having been so at an early one. It is a presumption, but nothing more. It is a presumption only; and not a very strong one.

In the tenth century the Slavonians of the Lower Elbe, occupants of Lauenburg, were also occupants of a portion of Holstein. Their boundary was the little river Bille. At an

earlier period they may have extended beyond the Bille, *i. e.* there is just a presumption in favour of their having done so.

I submit, then, that in the fifth century there were no Angles east of the Luneburg frontier, and no Angles east of the Bille.

§ 215 *The Lombards*—For reasons given elsewhere, I have committed myself to the opinion that, notwithstanding the *High-German* character of the glosses in the Lombard laws, the original invaders of Italy (who are to be distinguished from the Lombards of the Bavarian dynasty) were Germanized Slavonians; and not only this, but that, so far as they were German, they were all but Angles—though Lombard in name. The area which, both generally and on fair grounds, is given to the Langobards of Tacitus, is the country about Halberstadt. How it is bounded we cannot say; we can only believe that, on the *east*, it reached no further than the Elbe and Saale, the latter of which rivers was a well-known boundary of Slavonia, though there can be but little doubt that it was not always an accurate one. Though I find no traces of Germans beyond, I find many traces of Slavonians on this side of it. At the present moment, Magdeburg is the last town to the east which stands on ground originally German, beyond which, both above and below, the names of the villages are Polish rather than German—Steglitz, Wormlitz, Netlitz, Nelitz, &c.

It is to the north, then, of the Lombards that the Angles must be sought—but not due north. Due north of Magdeburg, (as has already been stated) the Altmark, or the Old March, with the geographical nomenclature full of Polish forms, and Luneburg, in which the old language was spoken in the last century, being both Slavonic.

If all this be accurate, the frontier between the Angles and the Slavomans lay on the lower Elbe, and there was a frontier between the Angles and the Lombards in the parts about Halberstadt and Magdeburg—the former a north-eastern, the latter a southern-eastern one.

§ 216. *Danish frontier*—The frontier in the direction of Denmark now comes under notice. The Germans of the Danish frontier were the Frisians and the Angles, the Frisians lying west, the Angles east. This means that there was nothing German between the Angles and the Danes. The first page of *Saxo Grammaticus* tells us that Dan and Angul were brothers, a statement which could be strengthened if necessary.

To proceed—Except for the purposes of minute, not to say

microscopic, ethnology, there is no need to refine upon the Eyder as the boundary between the Danes and the Germans, especially as the parts which bear most on England are those which are on the western side of the Peninsula, where the river rolls broad and strong. From running here nearly at right angles to the sea, or direct from east to west, it makes a line of demarcation both definite and convenient

The Angles, then, were frontagers of the Danes, and the Danish frontier was the Eyder. This, however, applies only to the frontier of the historical period. The extent to which there were Germans in Holstein, or Danes in Sleswick, in the fifth century, is unknown. Ptolemy gives us no name of any Nordalbingian population which is, necessarily, German. Neither does any early writer carry the Angles beyond the Elbe. I think, then, that their contact with the Danes was the result of their having pressed themselves northward, and not the result of their original *situs*. If so, their conquest of Holstein may have been concurrent with their invasions of England.

§ 217. The frontier on the *west* was Frisian. its details being both obscure and complicated. In the eyes, too, of many they may seem unimportant; inasmuch as in many respects the difference between the Frisians and the Angles was but nominal. The present question, however, is one concerning a *name*, viz. that of the county occupied by the men who called themselves Angles. I find no evidence of any Frisian ever having done so. No proof either of any Angle ever having called himself a Frisian. Still the approach to it is near. Both may have been called by the same name by a third party. Both may have been called Saxon. Both may, when speaking to certain third parties, have called themselves Saxons. Both may have spoken a language which Saxons, Angles, or Frisians may have understood. Still, name for name, an Angle was an Angle, and a Frisian a Frisian.

§ 218. In treating of the *Frisians*, I deal with the name *Frisian* as the name *Angle* had to be dealt with—i. e. as a name which, when collected from some third informant, and, when relating to a class of populations other than his own, was generic, but which, when applied to the Frisians themselves when they come definitely and prominently out in history, is specific. As a general name I believe it sometimes includes and rarely (or never) excludes the Chauci.

§ 219. Treating, then, the Chauci as Frisians—remembering that Tacitus takes the Chauci to the Elbe; that the North Frisians, at the present moment, occupy the western third of South Sleswick; and that within the historical period they may reasonably be assumed for Eyderstedt—we are all but forced to believe that the Frisian extension from North Holland to South Denmark must have been continuous. It is not necessary—it is only highly probable—that such was the case. As occupants of Holstein, they are only an inference—a probable one, it is true; still, only an inference. They may easily have been the Saxons of Ditmarsh. Still, *eo nomine*, we fail to find them as Frisians. A fringe, then, of Frisian occupancy must be assumed as having existed along the whole Hanoverian and Holstein seaboard. It was probably a narrow one—narrowest in the parts nearest the Elbe. Upon the first syllable in *Cux-haven* being the *Chauc-* in *Chauc-i*, I lay but little stress, though the etymology has been suggested, and (I believe) adopted.

Now, if we give all the sea-coast to the Frisians, we do it to the exclusion of the Angles. But if the Angles failed to touch the sea-coast, how did they get to England? This is a difficulty we must meet. The Angles were on the Lower Elbe. But the mouth of the Elbe is Frisian, and the banks, from Hamburg to Hanover, Slavonic. Now, this difficulty is not diminished by a reference to either Tacitus or Pliny. The Chauci of Pliny belong to the sea-coast, rather than to the interior; and, on the sea-coast, to the least favoured parts of it. The sketch he gives of their way of living indicates anything but comfort and power. And, it must be remembered, that Pliny, from having visited Germany, and been either on, or within, their frontier, is an authority of more than ordinary value. The Chauci of Tacitus, on the other hand, are a great nation—covering much ground and filling it, their line of frontier being not only long, but sinuous, and in one part touching that of the Chatti. This point of contact may have been the country to the north of Cassell, where the name *Hesse*, which, word for word, is *Chatti*, first presents itself. That there was a frontier between the Saxons and the Franks in these parts we know from the topography of the valley of the Diemel: part of which belonged to the one nation, and part to the other; and we also are pretty certain that such Chauci as extended themselves thus far inland would pass, in the eyes of a Frank,

for Saxons. They would do this even when those of the coast were associated with the Frisians.

The line which would connect these extremities, uniting the Chauci of the northern frontier of Hesse Cassell with the Chauci of the mouth of the Weser nearly coincides with the course of the Weser itself; the banks of which river are just as likely to have been occupied by the Chauci as by the men of any other name. This means that I find no other population for which any portion of its valley is required to satisfy any of its geographical conditions, though there are some which must have approached it. On the west, for instance, in the parts about Minden, the Angrivarii, whom we have fixed at Engen, must have done so. So must the Cherusci on the East. So must the Angles themselves. For all this, the whole line of the western bank, at least, may, as has been stated, have been the occupancy of the Chauci—from the sea to the Diemel.

If this be the case (and I see no better means of supporting the well-known text of Tacitus which brings the Chauci and the Chatti in contact with one another), we next ask how far the population under notice extended eastwards? The further it goes east and south the harder it is to find an Angle area. Could any Angles have been Chauci? I think that some of them, those of the interior, and those belonging to the south-eastern parts of the sinuous frontier given by Tacitus, may have been this. At any rate I think that some of the Chauci were more Angle than Frisian; that in everything but name they were Angles; and, finally, that it is not improbable that, even in name, some of them may have been actual Angles.

§ 220 In *Beowulf*, we read of the *Hocings*. Word for word, this is held to be the *Chauci*; and that, not by me alone, but by all, or most, who have written on the subject. Now *Hocing* is not so much (we must coin the word) a *Chaucus* as a *Chaucian*, i. e. one of *Chauch* blood; which makes it possible that between certain Chauci of the west, and certain Angles of the east there may have been a *minimum* of difference.

Again—*Hnæf* the *Hocing* is said to be the eponymus of the city of Hanover. He may or may not be. If he be, he confirms the statement of Tacitus as to the inland prolongation of the Chauci. At the same time, he suggests a difference between the inland members of the denomination and those of the sea-coast—the former of whom may have been as much Angle as Frisian, however much the latter were Frisian.

§ 221. This throws us back on the earlier writers, Strabo, Ptolemy, and Tacitus. The two former make the name *Angle* generic and give it to an important population on the Middle Elbe. The latter brings them near enough for the sea to have visited a holy grove in an island—but in doing this connects them with five other populations; of which, as far as the text goes, the Angle may have been the most inland.

Upon the whole, I come to the conclusion that the Angles were, *originally*, an inland population, belonging as much to the Middle as the Lower Elbe. I also hold that they were on the Slavonic frontier—though this is an inference *aliunde*.

I also think it possible that they may have been, *at the very beginning*, Slavonians, though (remembering what a favoured race the pure Germans think they belong to) I say it with fear and trembling.

All that we know of them in the fifth century is that they were on the Lower Elbe, and that they spoke German. The first century places them on the Middle Elbe. The two frontiers, however, are compatible.

CHAPTER XXXIII

THE PICTS—WHO WERE THEY?

§ 222. THE evidence of the Picts being Kelts of the British branch—*i. e.* not only Kelts rather than Germans, but British Kelts rather than Gaelic Kelts—lies in the following facts—

a. When St. Columba, whose mother-tongue was the Irish Gaelic, preached to them, he used an interpreter.

b. A manuscript in the Colbertine Library contains a list of Pict kings from the fifth century downwards. These names are not only more Keltic than Gothic, but more Welsh than Gaelic. *Taran* = *thunder* in Welsh. *Uven* is the Welsh *Owen*. The first syllable in *Talorg* (= *forehead*) is (perhaps) the *tal* in *Talharn* = *iron forehead*. *Taliessin* = *splendid forehead*. *Wrgust* is nearer to the Welsh *Gurgust* than to the Irish *Fergus*. Finally, *Drust*, *Drostan*, *Wrad*, *Necton*, closely resemble the Welsh *Trust*, *Trwstan*, *Gwriad*, *Nwython*, whilst *Cineod*,

and *Domhnall* (*Kenneth* and *Donnell*) are the only true Erse forms in the list.

c. Such are the Proper Names. The only Pict *common* name extant is the well-known compound *pen val*, which is in the oldest MS. of Beda *peann fahel*. This means *caput valli* and is the name for the eastern termination of the Vallum of Antoninus. Herein *pen* is unequivocally Welsh, meaning *head*. It is an impossible form in Gaelic. *Fal*, on the other hand, though Latin in origin, is apparently Gaelic in form, the Welsh for a *rampart* being *gwall*. *Fal*, however, occurs in Welsh also, and means *inclosure*. — “Incepit autem duorum ferme millium spatii à monasterio Æburcurnig ad occidentem, in loco qui sermone Pictorum *Peanfuhel*, lingua autem Anglorum *Penneltun* appellatur; et tendens contra occidentem terminatur juxta Urbem Alcluith” — *Hist Ecc* i. 12. Meanwhile, in the Durham MS. of Nennius, it is stated that the spot in question was called in Gaelic *Cenail*, the modern name *Kinnerl*, and also a Gaelic translation of *pen val*; since *cean* is the Gaelic for *head*, and *flail* for *rampart* or *wall*.

d. The name of the *Ochil Hills* in Perthshire is better explained from the British *uchel* = *high*, than from the Gaelic *uasal*.

e. *Bryneich*, the British form of the province of Bernicia, is better explained by the Welsh *byrn* = *ridge* (*hilly country*), than by any word in Gaelic.*

§ 223. Now this evidence is satisfactory—perhaps, when taken by itself, sufficient. At the same time it is anything but conclusive.

Claudian often mentions the Picts. That he mentions them in company not only with the Scots, but with the *Saxons* is a point of no great importance. He mentions them, however, as the occupants of a *northern* locality.

“Quid rigor æternus coeli, quid sidera prosunt
Ignotumque fictum? maduerunt Saxone fuso
Orcades, imcaluit Pictorum sanguine Thule,
Scotorum cumulos flevit glacialis Ierne.”

De quart Consul Hon 30-34.

This, along with similar passages, may be found in § 76. To which may be added—

“Ille leves Mauros, nec falso nomine *Pro* tos
Edomuit, Scotumque vago mucrone secutus
Fregit *Hyperboreis* remis audacibus undas” vi 54-57

* These details and inferences are taken from Mr. Garnett — in *Transactions of Philological Society*.

Supposing the Picts to be other than native to the soil of Britain, these notices point towards Scandinavia. So do the local traditions of the Orkney and Shetland Islands where the ruins of numerous ancient dwelling-places are called Pict Houses

Again—Nennius writes.—

(1)

"Post intervallum multorum annorum Picti venerunt et occupaverunt insulas quæ *Orcades* vocantur, et postea ex insulis affinitatis vastaverunt non modicas et multas regiones, *occupaveruntque eas in sinistrali playa Britannæ, et manent usque in hodiernum diem* Ibi tertium partem Britannæ tenuerunt et tenent usque nunc"—*cv.*

(2)

"Ut Brittones a Scottis vastati Pictisque Romanorum auxilia quæsierint, qui secundo venientes, murum trans insulam fecerint, sed hoc confestum a præfatis hostibus interrupto, majore sint calamitate depressi

"Exin Britannia in parte Brittonum, omni armato milite, militibus copus universis, tota floridæ juventutis alacritate spoliata, quæ tyrannorum temeritate abducta nusquam ultra domum redit, prædæ tantum patuit, utpote omnis bellici usus proisus ignara demque subito duabus gentibus *transmarinis* vehementer sævis, Scottorum a Cicio, *Pictorum ab Aquilone*, multos stupet gemitque per annos Transmarinas autem dicimus has gentes, non quod extra Britanniam essent positæ, sed quia a parte Brittonum erant remotæ, duobus sinibus maris interjacentibus, quorum unus ab Orientali mari, alter ab Occidentali, Britannæ terras longe lateque inrumpit, quamvis ad se invicem perungere non possunt Orientalis habet in medio sui urbem Grudi, Occidentalis supra se, hoc est, ad dexteram sui habet urbem Alcluth, quod lingua eorum significat 'petiam cluth,' est enim juxta fluvium nominis illius

"Et cum plurimam insulæ partem, incipientis ab austro, possedissent, contigit gentem Pictorum de *Scythia*, ut perhibent, longis navibus non multis oceanum ingressam, circumagente flatu ventorum, extra fines omnes Britannæ *Hiberniam* pervenisse, ejusque septentrionales oras intrasse, atque inventa ibi gente Scottorum, sibi quoque in partibus illius sedes petisse, nec impetrare potuisse Ad hanc ergo usque pervenientes navigo Picti ut diximus, petierunt in ea sibi quoque sedes et habitationem donari Respondebant Scotti, quia non ambos eos capeiet insula 'Sed possumus,' inquit, 'salubre vobis dare consilium quid agere valeatis Novimus insulam aliam esse non procul a nostra, contra ortum solis, quam sæpe lucidioribus diebus de longe aspicere solemus Hanc adne si vultis, habitabilem vobis facere valeatis vel si qui restiterit, nobis auxiliarius utimini' Itaque patentibus Britanniam Picti, habitare per septentrionales insulæ partes coeperunt, nam Austina Brittones occupaverant Cumque viros Picti non habentes peterent a Scottis, ea solum conditione dare consenserunt, ut ubi res perveniret in dubium, magis de feminea regum prosapia, quam de masculina regem sibi eligerent quod usque hodie apud Pictos constat esse servatum"

§ 224. The next locality notable for traditions respecting the Picts is the Scottish border, or rather the line of the Roman wall; which is again attributed to the *Picts*.

Thus, we have the Picts' Wall in Cumberland and Northumberland, and the Picts' Houses in Orkney and Shetland, not to mention the *Pentland* (*Piktland*) Firth, which is generally considered to be *fretum Pictorum*.

Again—the most Scandinavian parts of Scotland are Caithness, Orkney, and Shetland, also Pict.

Finally—the Danish termination *-by* occurs in Scotland nowhere between Dunscauby Head on the *Pentland* Firth, and Annandale, in the parts about the *Picts' Wall*

I submit that no doctrine respecting the Pict ethnology should pretermitt these facts, however strong those of the opposite view may be; for it must be observed, that, when in these extracts a *third* of Britain is given to the Picts, a *third* is just the portion which is afterwards given to the Scandinavians.

Again—The fact of the royal blood running in the *female* line invalidates the inference drawn from the British character of the names of the Pict kings.

I conclude with the following extract from Beda:—

“Procedente autem tempore, Britannia post Brittones et Pictos, tertiam Scottorum nationem in Pictorum parte recepit, qui duce *Reuda* de Hibernia progressi, vel amicitia vel ferro sibi met inter eos sedes quas hactenus habent, vindicarunt a quo videlicet duce usque hodie *Dalreudum* vocantur, nam lingua eorum *dal* partem significat”

Now *dal* = *pars* is *not* a Scotch, and *is*, certainly, a Scandinavian word. It is, possibly, a Pict word. Yet, how could it belong to the language in which *pen* = *head*?

§ 225. Still this does not exhaust the complications. It is generally, perhaps universally, stated that the name by which the Picts were known to the Irish was *Cruithneach*, or rather it should be said that the general or universal translation of the word *Cruithneach*, a word which appears frequently in the Irish Chronicles, is *Pict*

That, word for word, *Cruithneach* is *Pict*, is what no one has pretended. Neither has any one maintained that the one term is a translation of the other. *Pict*, where it has been translated at all, has been connected with the Latin *pictus* = *painted*. *Cruithneach*, on the other hand, where it has been interpreted, has been made a derivative of the Greek word *κριθον* (*krithon*) = *barley*. Neither of these views is correct, the latter being absurd. They are noticed, however, for the sake of showing that the two names have never been looked upon as equivalents in the way of signification. If

Cruithneach mean *Pict*, it means it in the same way that *German* means *Dutch*: the words being different, and their meanings, so far as they have any, being different also.

§ 226. Let us take a purely formal view of the word. Suppose *Cruithneach* were the name, *totidem literis*, of a nation in the north of Europe, occupant of a sea-coast, and situated in a country from which Ireland could be invaded, what should we make of it? There is, assuredly, something which we should *not* have done. We should not have made it mean *Pict*, however well the Pict history might have suited. On the contrary, we should have taken it as we found it, and simply said that, besides such and such invasions of Ireland, there was a *Cruithneach* one also. We might, indeed, if the identification of the Picts gave us trouble, make the Picts *Cruithneach*; but this would be very different from making the *Cruithneach* Picts.

Now, though no such name as *Cruithneach* is known in any part of Europe whence Ireland could be accessible—no such name, *totidem literis*, there is a near approach to it. It is submitted:—

a That the parts on the Lower Vistula are parts from which invasions of Ireland were practicable

b That the name for the population occupant of these parts in the eleventh century, is universally admitted to have been some form of the root *Pr-th*

c. That, though *Pruth-* is not *Cruith-* exactly, *i. e. totidem literis*, it is just the equivalent which the absence of *p* in the Irish Gaelic demands. *Cruith-* is the form that *Pruth-* would take in Irish Gaelic, where *c* replaces *p*; so that, word for word, we may deal with *Cruithneach* as if it were actually *Pruthneach*; at any rate, it is the *only* form which the word could take in Gaelic.

Again—supposing the Picts not to have been Kelts, there is a slight fact against their having been Scandinavians in the term *Pentland*. It is Norse. But is it a term that one Scandinavian population would apply to another? I think not. When the Norwegians, Danes, or Swedes, spoke of Picts, they certainly meant something other than Swedish, Danish, or Norwegian.

In this then, we have the elements of what we may call the Prussian hypothesis—an hypothesis for which I only claim a share of the credit, in case it be true. I am at liberty to connect it with the name of my friend Professor Graves, who, on the strength of a wholly independent series of researches,

not only identifies the Cruithneach of the Irish Chronicles with the Prussians, but also the Fomorian of the same with the Pomoranians.

§ 227. Finally, the following has been taken for a specimen of the Pict language. It is found in the fly-leaf of a copy of *Juvencus*. It is pronounced not to be Welsh; not Cornish; but, *par voie d'exclusion*, Pict.

(1)

Ni guorcosam nemheunau henoid
Mi telun it gumau
Mi am fianc dam an calaur

(2)

Ni eon ih ni guaidam ni cusam henoid
Cel iben med nouel
Mi am fianc dam an patel

(3)

Na meiet nep leguenid henoid
Is discun mi cowedid
Dou nam Ruccu inguetid

Translation of Mr Nash:

(1)

I shall not sleep a single hour to-night,
My harp is a very large one,
Give me for my play a taste of the kettle.

(2)

I shall not sing a song, nor laugh or kiss to-night,
Before drinking the Christmas mead
Give me for my play a taste of the bowl.

(3)

Let there be no sloth or sluggishness to-night,
I am very skilful in recitation
God, King of Heaven, let my request be obtained

*Translation of Archdeacon Williams **

(1)

I will not sleep even an hour's sleep to-night,
My family is not formidable,
I and my Frank servant and our kettle.

(2)

No bard will sing, I will not smile nor kiss to-night;
Together . . . to the Christmas mead
Myself and my Frank client and our kettle.

* Tallessin, or, the Bards and Druids of Britain, p. 79.

(3)

Let no one partake of joy to-night
 Until my fellow soldier arrives
 It is told to me that our lord the King will come

I have given it as I found it. The word *Noel* = *Christmas* is Anglo-Norman. How it can be Pict as well, Keltic scholars may decide.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

THE BELGÆ — WERE THEY EARLY OCCUPANTS OF BRITAIN? —
 WERE THEY GERMANS?

§ 228. THE Belgian hypothesis is, that the Belgæ were Germans, and that there were Belgæ in Britain in Cæsar's time.

The doctrine rests upon a comparison of the map of either ancient or modern Gaul with certain statements of Cæsar, Strabo, and Tacitus. In the map we find that the parts between the Seine and Rhine, or the valleys of the Maine, the Oise, the Somme, the Sambre, the Meuse, and the Moselle, were Belgian. Treves was Belgian, Luxembourg, Belgian, the Netherlands, Belgian. Above all, French Flanders, Aitois, and Picardy—the parts nearest Britain, the parts within sight of Kent, the parts from whence Britain was most likely to be peopled—were Belgian.

Again, modern Belgium is as truly the country of two languages and of a double population as Wales, Ireland, or Scotland. There is the French, which has extended itself from the south, and the Flemish, which belongs to Holland and the parts northwards. It is in recent times, that the French has encroached upon the Flemish, and the Flemish has receded before the French. Hence, nothing is more legitimate than the conclusion, that, at some earlier period, the dialects of the great German stock extended as far south as the parts about Calais. If so Germans might have found their way into the south-eastern counties of England 2000 years ago, or even sooner. Hence, instead of the Angles and Saxons having been the first German conquerors of the Britons, and the earliest introducers of the English tongue, Belgæ of Kent, Belgæ of Surrey, Belgæ of Sussex, and Belgæ of Hampshire, may have played an important, though unrecorded,

part in that long and obscure process which converted Keltic Britain into German England

Such views have not only been maintained, but they have been supported by important testimonies and legitimate arguments. Foremost amongst the former come two texts of Cæsar, one applying to the well-known Belgæ of the Continent, the others to certain obscurer Belgæ of Great Britain. When Cæsar inquired of the legates of the Remi, what States constituted the power of the Belgæ, and what was their military power, he found things to be as follows —“*The majority of the Belgæ were derived from the Germans (plerosque Belgas ortos esse ab Germanis)*. Having in the olden time crossed the Rhine, they settled in their present countries, on account of the fruitfulness of the soil, and expelled the Gauls, who inhabited the parts before them. They, alone, within the memory of our fathers, when all Gaul was harassed by the Teutones and Cimbri, forbid those enemies to pass their frontier. On the strength of this they assumed a vast authority in the affairs of war, and manifested a high spirit. Their numbers were known, because, united by relationships and affinities (*propinquitatibus et adfinitatibus conjuncti*), it could be ascertained what numbers each chief could bring with him to the common gathering for the war. The first in numbers, valour, and influence were the Bellovaci. These could make up as many as 100,000 fighting men. Their neighbours were the Suessiones, the owners of a vast and fertile territory. Their king Divitiacus was yet remembered as the greatest potentate of all Gaul, whose rule embraced a part of Britain as well. Their present king was Gallus. Such was his justice and prudence, that the whole conduct of the war was voluntarily made over to him. Their cities were twelve in number, their contingent 50,000 soldiers. The Nervii, the fiercest and most distant of the confederacy, could send as many, the Atrebatæ, 15,000, the Ambiani, 10,000, the Morini, 25,000, the Menapii, 9000, the Caleti, 10,000, the Velocasses and Veromandui, 10,000; the Aduatici, 29,000; the Condrusi, Eburones, Cæraşi, and Præmani, who were collectively called Germans (*qui uno nomine Germani appellantur*), might be laid at 40,000”—*Bell. Gall.* lib. ii. c. 4.

This is the first statement alluded to. The second is, “that the interior of Britain is inhabited by those who are recorded to have been born in the island itself; whereas the sea-coast is the occupancy of immigrants from the country of the Belgæ

brought over for the sake of either war or plunder " *All these are called by names nearly the same as those of the States they came from, names which they have retained in the country upon which they made war, and in the land whereon they settled* "—*Bell Gall* lib. v. c. 12.

Each of these extracts may be enlarged on. The sixth book supplies us with the statement that "*Segni Condrusique ex gente et numero Germanorum, qui sunt inter Eburones Tre-virosque legatos ad Cæsarem miserunt, oratum, ne se in hostium numero duceret, neve omnium Germanorum, qui essent citra Rhenum, unam esse causam judicaret*"

Those are the most definite and direct statements in Cæsar. The others are of a less decided character. Some go to show that the Nervii and others had certain customs which were more German than Celtic; others, that they formed part of a German confederacy; others, that there were Germans on the left bank of the Rhine.

Respecting the Aduatici, there is a statement which would be highly important, if it could be shown beyond doubt that the Cimbri and Teutones were, *each and both*, German "*Ipsi erant ex Cimbriis Teutonisque prognati; qui, quum iter in provinciam nostram atque Italiam facerent, iis impedimentis, quæ secum agere ac portare non poterant, citra flumen Rhenum depositis, custodiæ ex suis ac præsidio sex milia hominum una reliquerunt* *Hî, post eorum obitum, multos annos a finitimis exagitati, quum alias bellum inferrent, alias illatum defenderent, consensu eorum omnium pace facta, hunc sibi domicilio locum delegerunt*"—*Bell. Gall* lib. ii c. 29.

So much for Cæsar's notices. Those of Strabo and Tacitus confirm them. they speak decidedly—*Τρηονίους δὲ συνεχεῖς Νέρβιοι, καὶ τοῦτο Γερμανικὸν ἔθνος*.—*Strabo*, lib. iv c. 3. "*Treveri et Nervii circa affectationem Germanicæ originis ultro ambitiosi sunt*."—*Germania*, c. 28

Lastly, we have the general statement of Cæsar that the three divisions into which Gaul falls, one of which is that of the Belgæ, "*lingua, institutis, legibus inter se differunt*."—*Bell. Gall.* lib. i. c. 1.

My reasons for believing that the evidence before us is insufficient, is the circumstance of its being traversed by conflicting facts and the likelihood of the link of union between the Belgæ and the Germans of the left bank of the Rhine being a link of a *political* rather than one of an *ethnological*

nature. There was a partial German conquest of the Belgian territory, and a Germano-Belgic confederation. More than this is not required from the context of Cæsar, and in the face of certain facts more should not be sought. Since—

Strabo's confirmation of Cæsar is only *partial*. He writes, that "the Aquitanians are wholly different from the other Gauls, not only in language, but in their bodies,—wherein they are more like the Iberians than the Gauls. The rest are Gallic in look, but not all alike in language. Some differ *a little*. Their politics, too, and manners of life differ *a little*."—
Lab iv. c 1.

The whole context of the extract about the Nervii, and their 50,000 men, reads like the account of a *confederacy*. They were *propinquitatibus et adfinitatibus conjuncti*.

As to the chief positive fact in favour of the Keltic affinities of the Belgæ, it lies in the numerous local, national, and individual names of the Belgæ. These agree so closely in form with those of the undoubted Gauls, as to be wholly undistinguishable. The towns, &c., end in *-acum*, *-briva*, *-magus*, *-dunum*, and *-durum*, and begin with *Ver-*, *Cær-*, *Con-*, and *Tre-*, just like those of Central Gallia, so that we have—to go no further than the common maps—*Viriovi-acum*, *Minori-acum*, *Origi-acum*, *Turn-acum*, *Bag-acum*, *Camar-acum*, *Nemet-acum*, *Catusi-acum*, *Gemini-acum*, *Blari-acum*, *Mederi-acum*, *Tolbi-acum*; *Samaro-briva*; *Novio-magus*, *Moso-magus*; *Vero-dunum*; *Marco-durum*; *Theo-durum*; *Ver-omandui*; *Cær-esi*; *Con-drusi*; *Tre-veri*—all Keltic forms and compounds.

Now as Cæsar's informants about the Belgian populations were themselves Belgæ, it is inconceivable that they should, if they had been Germans, have used nothing but Gallic terms, when they spoke of themselves. Again, the names of the individual Belgian chiefs are as Gallic as those of the towns and nations, *e g Commius* and *Divitiacus*, and so are those of such Bitons as *Cussibelanuns*.

§ 229. Other facts (as well as the opinion of a safe authority) against the German character of the Belgæ, may be seen in the Dictionary of Greek and Roman Geography, under the word *Belgæ (of Gaul)*. Some lie in the indefinitude of Cæsar's language respecting these same Belgæ. In "describing the position of his troops during the winter of the year B C 54–53, he speaks of three legions being quartered in Belgium, or among the Belgæ, while he mentions others as quartered among the

Morini, the Nervii, the Essui, the Remi, the Treveri, and the Eburones, all of whom are Belgæ in the wider sense of the term." Others lie in the *reductio ad absurdum*. If every population which can be construed into *Belgian*, be German as well, several populations, whose Keltic character is beyond doubt, will be transferred from the Keltic stock, which is their right, to the German, which is their wrong, place. The undoubtedly Non-german Veneti will be in this predicament. So will the Mediomatrici of Lorraine; the Leuci, south of the Mediomatrici, and the Parisii of Paris. So will the Auleri and others. Others lie in the expression of Tacitus, concerning the Treveri and Nervii, *circa affectationem*, &c. "The Treveri and Nervii affected a German origin, which, if it be true, must imply that they had some reason for affecting it; and also that they were not pure Germans, or they might have said so. Strabo (p. 192) makes the Nervii Germans. The fact of Cæsar making such a river as the *Marne*, a boundary between Belgic and Keltic peoples, is a proof that he saw some marked distinction between Belgæ and Celtæ, though there were many points of resemblance. Now, as most of the Belgæ were Germans, or of German origin, as the Remi believed or said, there must have been some who were not Germans or of German origin; and if we exclude the Menapii, the savage Nervii, and the pure Germans, we cannot affirm that any of the remainder of the Belgæ were Germans"—*Dictionary of Ancient Geography*, v. *Belgæ*

§ 230. So much against the German character of the Belgæ of Gaul. The chief (perhaps the only) material fact in its favour is the following. The evidence that the Batavi and Canninates, of Holland, were German, is very strong. Nevertheless, the Batavi formed part of the Gallia of Cæsar. More than this, the names of two Batavian localities. *Lug-dunum* and *Batavo-durum*, are clearly Keltic. There are more ways than one of explaining this. Thus: the towns may have come to us in their Keltic names only, the native ones having been unknown to the early geographers. Or the original population may have been Keltic; the Batavi having been intrusive. I give the argument against which these objections are made its full weight; nevertheless, I submit that the balance of reasons is against the Belgæ having been German.

§ 231. The first of the two extracts under notice, the one which has just been considered, suggested the question as to how far a statement made concerning certain Germans on the Belgian

side of the Rhine, might be extended to the Belgæ at large. The second induces us to ask how far a statement which applies to the Belgæ of Gaul applies to the south-eastern population of Britain. The first was not decided affirmatively, neither will the second be.

Cæsar states that there were certain Belgians in Britain; but he nowhere says that *Belgæ* was the name by which they were called.

Ptolemy gives us the name *Belgæ*, but he nowhere says that they came from Belgium.

How far do these two authors mean the same population?

§ 232 Ptolemy's locality, though the exact extent of the area is doubtful, is, to a certain degree, very definitely fixed. The Belgæ lay to the south of the Dobuni whose chief town was Corineum (*Correncester*). They also lay to the east and north of the Durotinges of *Dorchester*. Venta (*Winchester*) was one of the towns, and Aquæ Solis (*Bath*), another, Calleva (*Silchester*) was *not* one of them, on the contrary, it belonged to the Atrebatii. This coincides nearly with the county of Wilts, parts of Somerset and Hants being also included. The Belgæ of Ptolemy agree with those of Cæsar only in belonging to the southern parts of Britain. They are chiefly an inland population, and touch the sea only on the south and west; not on the east, or the parts more especially opposite Belgium.

§ 233. The second name is that of the *Atrebates*. There were *Atrebates* in Britain. In Belgium there were *Atrebates* in *Artois*, which is only *Atrebates* in a modern form. Considerable importance attaches to the fact, that, before Cæsar visited Britain in person, he sent Commius, an Atrebatian, before him. Now, this Commius was first conquered by Cæsar, and afterwards set up as a king over the Morini. That Commius gave much of his information about Britain to Cæsar is likely; perhaps he was his chief informant. He, too, it was who, knowing the existence of Atrebates in Britain, probably drew the inference which has been so lately suggested, viz that of a Belgæ migration, or a series of them. Yet the Atrebates of Britain were so far from being on the coast, that they must have lain west of London, in Berkshire and Wilts, since Cæsar, who advanced, at least, as far as Chertsey, where he, probably, crossed the Thames, meets nothing but Cantii, Trinobantes, Cénimagni, Segontiaci, Ancalites, Bibroci, and Cassi. It is Ptolemy who first mentions the British Atrebates; and he places them be-

tween the Dobuni and the Cantii. Now, as the Dobuni lay due west of the Silures of South Wales, we cannot bring the Atrebates nearer the coast than Windsor at most.

Of five other names I take no account—Remi, Hedui, Bibroci, Cauci, and Menapii. The two latter belong to the geography of Ireland; the three former are found only in the Richard of Cirencester.

§ 234. A further fact against the existence of any notably great German population in Britain lies in a well-known passage of Tacitus. Tacitus, who was fully as well informed in respect to the population of Britain as Cæsar, has a special speculation as to the existence of Germans in that Island. He looks out for them. *How* does he find them? Not in the plain straightforward way that he would have done had Cæsar's account been correct and the whole south-eastern coast been German; but doubtfully and by the circuitous method of an inference. He finds certain light-haired, big-bodied men, and accounts for their being so by the hypothesis of a German origin. *Where* does he find them? Not in Kent and Sussex, but in Scotland.

Upon the whole, the facts against the Belgæ of Britain being, at one and the same time, Belgæ from Gaul and German in blood, largely preponderate against the conclusion to be drawn from the text and context of Cæsar. In my own mind his statement arose out of an *inference*—either one of his own, or one of his probable informant, Commius. The same names appeared on both sides of the Channel, in Britain as well as in Gaul. Out of this fact arose, as a legitimate deduction, the identity of similarity of the two peoples, and, as a somewhat less legitimate one, the doctrine of a recent conquest from Belgium.

§ 235. I will not absolutely commit myself to a similar doctrine in respect to Ptolemy; though, upon the whole, I think that it applies to him also. It is *likely* that his Belgæ were hypothetical; and that no population in Britain gave themselves that name. No traces of it exist. This, however, is of no great weight until it be taken with the difficulties of Ptolemy's text; which, although by no means inconsiderable when compared with those of Cæsar's notice, are still greater when we take it in detail.

"Next to these (viz the Silures) the Dobuni, and their town Corineum. Next, the Atrebatii, and their town Nalkua. Beyond whom are the Cantii,

the eastermost people Amongst them are these towns · Londinium, Darvenum, Rhutupæ Again, south from the Attrebatu and the Cantu, lie the Regni and the town Næomagus South of the Dobuni (*i. e.* the parts about Corineum=Cirencester) lie the Belgæ, and the towns Ischalis, Hot Springs, Venta Beyond these, on the west and south, are the Durotriges" (*i. e.* Dorsetshire)

Here we have more than one point of undoubted certainty, *e. g.* *Corineum* = *Cirencester*, *Hot Springs* = *Bath*, and *Venta* = *Winchester*; to say nothing about others less universally admitted. Nevertheless, the Belgæ are a difficult population, lying as far west as Bath, and as far east as Winchester—as far west as Bath, and yet having the Durotriges to the *west* also. Were there two towns named *Venta* for these parts, one in Hants, and the other in Wilts? Not impossible; inasmuch as the word was a *common*, rather than a *proper* name, and there were *Ventæ* elsewhere, *e. g.* (a *Venta Icenorum*) in Norfolk. Such and suchlike assumptions may reconcile the difficulties of the text of Ptolemy. They will, however, not improbably involve a greater amount of complication and hypothesis than the simpler doctrine that Ptolemy's Belgæ, under that name, had no existence in Britain at all, but that the authority of Cæsar had led him to infer them, and also to place them in the south. This, however, is a suggestion rather than a material fact. The material fact is the Non-german character of any Belgæ that may have been there. That there were *some* strangers is likely enough; but that they were a separate substantive population of sufficient magnitude to be found in all the parts of Britain where Belgic names occurred, and still more that they were Germans, is an unsafe inference—safe, perhaps, if the texts of Cæsar stood alone, but unsafe if we take into consideration the numerous facts, notices, and presumptions which complicate and oppose them.

CHAPTER XXXV.

ARE THERE FIN, OR UGRIAN, ELEMENTS IN ENGLISH?—THE FIN HYPOTHESIS.

§ 236. ARE there Fin, or Ugrian, elements in English?

The doctrine that Fin, or Ugrian, elements may be found in the English language, rests on two foundations.

The first source whence we may get Ugrian elements is Norway. It is reasonably believed that all the parts north of the Baltic were once Lap, even as Lapland is. If so, Lap words may have been taken up by the Norwegian, and, through it, introduced into England.

§ 237 The second implies what may be the *Fin Hypothesis*. This means that just as a Keltic population preceded the German, so did a Ugrian population precede the Keltic. All Europe, according to this view, was once Ugrian or Fin—all Europe and much of Asia.

By *Fin* is meant not only the Finlander of Finland, but a great deal more. All the populations whose languages belong to the same class are, in the eyes of the ethnologist, Fins. Now these languages are the following —

1. *The Lap of the Laplanders*
2. *The Magyar of Hungary.*
3. *The Estonian of Estonia.*

4 *The Vod* —These are the descendants of the original occupants of Ingria, a population which, anterior to the Swedish and Russian conquests on the coasts of the Gulph of Finland, connected the Fins of the Duchy of Finland with the Rahwas (for that is their national name) of Estonia

5 *The Permians, Zirianians, and Votiaks*, of the Governments of Vologda, Perm, and Viatka

6 *The Tsherenis*, of the Governments of Viatka, Kazan, Kostroma, Nizhni-novogorod, Orenburg, and Perm.

7 *The Mordvins*, of the Governments of Astrakhan, Kazan, etc.

8. *The Voguls*, of the Uralian range, and

9 *The Ostiaks*, of the drainage of Obi

10 The *Samoyeds*, and, perhaps, the *Yeniseians*, and *Yukagiri*. The stock itself is as often called *Ugrian* as *Fin*

Out of the *Fin* stock of languages grew what may be called the *Fin hypothesis*. It originated (I believe) with Arndt, but was developed and promulgated by Rask. It was adopted at once by the Scandinavian philologues and ethnologists, to whose speculations it has given a character by which they are honourably distinguished. It has given boldness and comprehensiveness, at the very least. In his first edition of the *English Language*, the present writer adopted it, along with more than one other doctrine, which he has since found reason either to modify or abandon. He believes, too, that, thus adopted, it

found its way into England for the first time. The German school appears to recognize it generally. In France and America it has made less way. Dr Pichard, in his second edition of the *Natural History of Man*, adopts it, using, however, the term *Allophylan* instead of *Fin* or *Ugrian*.

The *Fin* hypothesis is closely connected with the Eastern origin of the Germans then congeners, of the class called *Indo-Europeans*; the Eastern origin of the *Indo-Europeans* being essential to its validity. Without the *Fin* hypothesis, the Eastern origin, etc., is possible; but, without the Eastern origin, there is no *Fin* hypothesis. This helps us on towards an anticipation of its nature.

If the *Indo-Europeans* came from the East, and if they were not the very first occupants of the West, some one must have been in Europe before them. When they were on the Indus, the Tigris, and the Euphrates, others must have been on the Rhine, the Danube, and the Rhone, possibly on the Thames, possibly on the Ebro and the Guadalquivir. More than this—Asia is a large area, and it is not from any part of it indifferently that this hypothesis brings the *Indo-Europeans*. They were not Siberians nor Chinese; possibly they were at one time foreign to even certain parts of India. There are in India impracticable forests, mountains, and jungles. Besides this, India stretches far southwards; so that a population might easily be occupant of the Ganges and Indus without reaching Cape Comorin—possibly without having got south of the Nerbudda, Godavery, or Kistna rivers.

Be this as it may, there was a vast area which, at one time, was neither uninhabited, nor yet inhabited by *Indo-Europeans*. Who *did* occupy it? By the hypothesis of Aindt and Rask, the *Fins*. Hence the *Fin* hypothesis.

It is, of course, not meant by this that the several populations which thus resided aboriginally in the plains of Sarmatia, the mountains of Italy and Spain, the islands of Britain, the steppes of Siberia, and the inaccessible extremities of the Indian Peninsula—to say nothing of China and Siam—were *Fins* in the way that the true members of the stock in its narrower (and proper) sense were *Fins*. It is merely meant that they were more related to each other than they were to either the *Indo-Europeans* or any other recognized class.

Nevertheless, the group was one of formidable dimensions. First, it contained populations in the south and west of Europe,

who, being other than Indo-European, took the appearance of being aboriginal. Some of them were extinct. Others, however, survived. The Basks of the Pyrenees did this. So did the Albanians of Albania. These survived, because the inaccessible nature of their arcus had preserved them from the fate of their congeners in Gaul, Germany, Italy, Greece, and Sarmatia. They survived, because woods and mountains had been to them what the cold of the Arctic Circle had been to the Laps, and his swamps and fens to the Finlander. They survived to suggest to ethnologists of the nineteenth century a time (long anterior to the dawn of history) when a complex series of kindred populations was continuously spread over all Europe, from Albania to Finland, from Spain to Scandinavia—a series of populations now broken up and separated.

Secondly, it contained populations to the north and west of the original home of the Indo-Europeans, for it seems to have been in the direction of Europe, rather than in that of either China or Siberia, that the great hypothetical stream of the Indo-European population rolled itself. These were the Chinese and the tribes of Siberia.

Thirdly, it contained those populations of India itself, whose language betokened a different origin from that of the populations whose ancestors spoke Sanskrit. These were the nations of the Dekhan, and most of the hill-tribes.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

ARE THERE SARMATIAN ELEMENTS IN ENGLISH?

§ 238. *Sarmatian* is a generic name for the *Lithuanic* and *Slavonic* languages collectively.

Did any members of either of these divisions either accompany the Angles or effect independent settlements? They may easily have done so, inasmuch as we have seen that Mecklenburg, Lauenburg, and parts of Holstein were Slavonic, to say nothing of other parts of Germany: more especially the country along the Elbe.

The fact, however, of the Slavonic area being in contact with the Angle has been fully enlarged on already. Never-

theless, it is sufficiently important to be again alluded to. Indeed, an addition may be made to the notice of it. The names of the chief Slavonic nations of the Angle frontier in the time of Charlemagne and his successors are known, along with several details of their history. There were the *Werini*; as has been stated. There were the *Obotriti*, *Obotritæ*, *Abotriti*, *Abotride*, *Apodritæ*, *Abatareni*, *Apdrede*, or *Afdrege*, between the Warnow and Schwerin. They were the allies of the Franks against the Saxons, and after the defeat and partial removal of the latter, were transplanted, as colonists, into some of their colonies. Lauenburg was the occupancy of the *Polabingii*, or the men on the *Laba* or *Elbe*; whose capital was Ratzeburg. The *Wagri* were the Slaves of Holstein and the Isle of Fehmarn. The *Linones*, or *Lini*, of Lüneburg preserved their language till the beginning of the last century. The *Smeldingi*, the *Bethenici*, the *Morizani*, the *Doxani*, and the *Hevelli* lay further towards the interior. The populations, however, which began our list, were actually in contact with the Angles.

§ 239. Again—the original *Lithuanic* area extended as far as the frontier between East Prussia and Pomerania. Hence, members of the Lithuanic division may have joined the Angles.

Nor is this all. A case can be made in favour of a large portion of Scandinavia having been Lithuanic before it was German. If so, the Norse element of the English may have contained Sarmatian words. This question, however, is too new and too complicated to be gone into in any detail.

Lastly, reasons have been given for believing that the *Fomorian*s of the Irish annals were Pomorians.

For the possibility of the Picts having been Prussian see the previous chapter.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

§ 240. WITH this chapter concludes our notice of what may be called the *Origines* of the English Language. It consists of miscellaneous suggestions and remarks.

The English language came from Germany. Does this mean that it originated there? Not necessarily. Individually, I believe that it did so originate; that it was on German soil

that it developed its peculiar and numerous characteristics ; that it was on German soil that it separated itself from certain other languages, with which, as we proceed, we shall hear that it has numerous general affinities,—in short, that it was on German soil that it became German. But though this is my own doctrine, it is not that of many eminent philologues ; some of whom believe that, before the men and women who spoke it occupied Germany, it was, nevertheless, what it was upon German ground. The belief that it originated in some district east of Germany is common. Some investigators deduce it from India, some from the north-west frontier of India, some from Persia, some from Central Asia. Whatever may be the fact, the inquiry belongs to general rather than special philology, and is a dark and difficult one.

§ 241. The English language came from Germany. Does this mean that it came from Germany direct ? Not necessarily. There was the *Litus Saxonicum*, from which it might easily have been introduced.

§ 242. The English language came from Germany. Does this mean that, presuming it to have come direct, it came wholly from the German ? By no means. Part might have been from Germany direct ; but part from the *Litus Saxonicum*. More than this ; the Angle parts may represent the direct, the Saxon the indirect element. If so, the division between Angle and Saxon is, to some extent, real. If so, the Saxon part may contain Keltic and Roman elements taken up on the coast of Gaul. For reasons which will appear in the sequel, I indicate rather than adopt this alternative.

§ 243. The English language came from Germany. Does this mean that it was always and exclusively spoken by Germans ? No. There is no necessity for the blood and language to have coincided. There were Germans in (say) the first century, who may have been other than German in some preceding one. At any rate, some portion of them may have been so. The Angles were a population, not of Central Germany, but of the German and Slavonic frontier.

§ 244. The English language came from Germany. Does this mean that it was spoken on the soil of England by none but Germans ? No. However much we may believe that the Britons either retreated before the Saxons, or were annihilated by them, there must have been *some* intermixture. If so, some one of Keltic blood—pure or mixed—must have unlearned his

own tongue, and adopted that of his conqueror. This, however, like the preceding one, is a point of ethnology rather than philology.

§ 245 Was the language introduced from the Continent in the form in which we first find it, or formed in England? This is asked because the fact of there being good reasons for believing that other populations besides that of the Angles, in the strictest sense of the term, took part in the invasion, for invasion of Britain has a tendency to engender the doctrine that the Anglo-Saxon may be a mixed, rather than a pure, form of speech, a doctrine that is not without some supporters. The reasons against it, reasons which, in the mind of the present writer, are conclusive, are (1) the structure of the Anglo-Saxon Language, which is as regular as that of any of the allied tongues, and (2) its close affinity to those, specimens of which will be noticed hereafter under the name of Old Saxon, which, undeniably, belong to continental localities—especially to certain parts of Westphalia.

§ 246. In investigating the direction in which the Angle conquest moved, and the rate at which it moved, we must separate the history of the actual Angles from that of the obliteration of the ancient British language. *Upon the whole*, it was displaced by the English—not, however, exclusively. There was a Scandinavian influence as well; and of this, the direction was twofold. It crossed the island from east to west, but it also went round it. The details of this, so far as they are known, will be considered hereafter. At present it is enough to say, that while the Danes landed on the coasts of Yorkshire, Lincolnshire, and Norfolk, the Norwegians more especially attacked the northern counties of Scotland, and Orkney, and Shetland. Thence to the Hebrides, the western coast of Scotland, Cumberland, and Wales, along the Isle of Man, and Ireland. In Cumberland, then, and in Lancashire and Cheshire, the original British was encroached upon on each side.

PART II.

DIALECTS.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE DIFFUSION OF THE ENGLISH
LANGUAGE.

§ 247 THE English Language is spoken in all the counties of England.

It is spoken in Wales, *partially*; that is, in the Principality of Wales there are two languages, viz. the English, and the Welsh as well.

It is also spoken in Scotland, *partially*; that is, in the Northern and Western counties of Scotland there are two languages, the English, and a language called the *Scotch* Gaelic as well.

It is also spoken in Ireland, *partially*; that is, in Ireland there are two languages, the English, and a language called the *Irish* Gaelic as well.

It is also spoken in the Isle of Man, *partially*, that is, in the Isle of Man there are two languages, the English, and a language called the Manx as well.

It is spoken in the United States of America, in Canada, in Australia, and, more or less, in all the English colonies and dependencies.

§ 248 The extension of the English language *beyond* the British Isles is a recent event when compared with its extension *over* the British Isles in the early periods of our history. Indeed, the former has taken place almost entirely since the reign of Queen Elizabeth. It was then that the first English colony, that of Virginia, was planted in North America, and it was only natural that the emigrants who left England should

take their language with them. Upon the shores of America it came in contact and collision with the numerous dialects of the native Indians ; and upon these it encroached just as, a thousand years before, it had encroached upon the original British of Britain. Certain languages then became entirely lost, and, at the same time, the tribes that spoke them. Sometimes they were wholly exterminated ; sometimes they were driven far into the interior of the land. In a short time populous cities stood upon the hunting-grounds of the expelled tribes, and the language of the mother-country became naturalized in a New World. The subsequent settlement of Maryland, Georgia, and the remaining States of America completed the preponderance of the English language from the boundaries of Canada to the Gulf of Mexico.

During the Protectorate of Cromwell, the island of Jamaica was taken from the Spaniards, and from that time forwards the English has been the language of a greater part of the West-Indian Islands.

In Canada, it first took root after the taking of Quebec in the reign of George the Second. As Canada, however, had been previously a French colony, the European language that was first spoken there was not the English but the French. Hence, when Quebec was taken, the language of the country fell into two divisions. There were the different dialects of the original Indians, and there was the French of the first European colonists. At the present moment, both these languages maintain their ground, so that the English is spoken only partially in Canada, the French and the Indian existing by the side of it.

At the Cape of Good Hope the English is spoken in a similar manner, that is, it is spoken partially. The original inhabitants were the Caffie and Hottentot tribes of Africa, and the earliest European colonists were the Dutch. For these reasons Dutch and English, conjointly with the Hottentot and Caffian dialects, form the language of the Cape of Good Hope. In Guiana, too, in South America, English and Dutch are spoken in the neighbourhood of each other, for the same reason as at the Cape.

In Asia the English language is spoken in India, but there the original languages of the country are spoken to a far greater extent than is the case in either America or Africa.

Australia and New Zealand are exclusively English colonies, and, consequently, in Australia and New Zealand English is

the only *European* language that is spoken. In each of these settlements it encroaches upon the native dialects.

Malta, Gibraltar, Heligoland, Guernsey, and Jersey, and many other localities of less note, are isolated spots, which, being portions of the English dominions, use the English language

§ 249 The English Language was diffused over the English colonies and dependencies from Great Britain.

The English Language was diffused over Great Britain from Germany

Mutatis mutandis, the history of the two diffusions is the same

Different portions of one country, at different times, supplied different portions of other countries with a population speaking a certain language

The particular form of this language varied with the particular locality from which it was introduced.

Also—with the date of its introduction

Lastly, it was liable to a further modification from the particular languages of the new countries with which it came in contact. Between them, there would be a certain amount of action and reaction.

§ 250 What is the English Language? This is not very easily answered. It is not the language of every or of any book written in English. Science has, to a great extent, a language of its own. So have Fine Arts. So have the Useful ones. Many of the words here are technical rather than generally current. Neither is it the language of every untaught occupant of every little village in every English valley or woodland. This is a dialect rather than a great national language. It is something more than this—something less. The real English Language are those parts of the language of common life and the language of cultivated thought which come in the way of currency and intelligibility, of *quod hic, quod ubique, quod ab omnibus*; its area being limited by the three seas on the south, east, and west, and the Scotch boundary on the north—the line here being, more or less, arbitrary.

We may get a rough measure for this by taking, haphazard, a few sentences from any Latin or French author; and drawing a line under those words which, either bodily, or through some derivative, have entered into the English. One sentence is, perhaps, as good as another for this purpose. Let us take the beginnings of the *Æneid*, and the *Hemiac*.

(1)

Anna, virumque cano, Tiojæ qui primus ab oïis
Itaham, futo profugus, Lavinaque venit
Littora multum ille et terra jactatu et unda,
Ti Superum, sævæ memorem Junonis ob iram
Multa quoque et bello passus, dum conderet urbem,
Inferretque Deos Latio genus unde Latinum,
Albanque patres atque altæ mœnia Romæ

1 Aims	14 Superior
2 Virility, &c	15 Memory, memorial, &c
3 Accent	16 Ie
4 Quality, &c	17 Multitude, multiple, &c
5 Prime	18 Belligerent
6 Fate	19 Passion
7 Re-fuguee	20 Conclusion
8 Ad-vent	21 Urbanity
9 Littoral	22 Infer, inference, &c.
10 Multiply, multiple, &c	23 Derty
11 Terrestrial	24 Gender, generation, &c
12 Jactitation	25 Patrician
13 Violent, violence, &c	26 Altitude.

(2)

Je chante ce héros qui regna sur la France,
Et par droit de conquête et par droit de naissance,
Qui par des longs malheurs apprit à gouverner,
Culma les factions sut vaincre et pardonner,
Confondit et Mayenne et La Ligue et l'Ibère,
Et fut de ses sujets le vainqueur et le père.

CHAPTER II.

THE RELATION OF THE ENGLISH TO THE ANGLO-SAXON, AND
THE STAGES OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

§ 251. IF the present English of the nineteenth century be compared with the Anglo-Saxon of the tenth, the following points of difference will be observed —

1. The Anglo-Saxon language contained words that are either wanting in the present English, or, if found, used in a different sense

A. S.	English.
lyft	<i>an</i>
lichoma	<i>body</i>
stefu	<i>voice</i>
thcôd	<i>people</i>
ece	<i>everlasting</i>
hwæt	<i>sharp</i>

A. S.	English.
swithe	<i>very</i>
sáro	<i>very</i>
sith	<i>late</i>
reccan	<i>care about</i>
ongitan	<i>understand</i>
sweltan	<i>die, &c</i>

These words, which are very numerous, although lost (or changed as to meaning) in the current English, are often preserved in the provincial dialects.

2. The present English contains words that were either wanting in the Anglo-Saxon, or, if found, used in a different sense—*voice, people, conjugal, philosophy, alchemist, very, survey, shawl*, and other words, to the amount of some hundreds. These have been introduced since the time of the Anglo-Saxons, from the Latin, Greek, French, Arabic, and other languages.

3. Words found in both Anglo-Saxon and English appear in different forms in the different languages

A. S.	English.
an	<i>one</i>
cahta	<i>eight</i>
nygon	<i>nine</i>
endlufon	<i>eleven</i>

A. S.	English.
gæis	<i>grass</i>
ic	<i>I</i>
spæc	<i>speech</i>
eáge	<i>eye, &c.</i>

More important, however, than the differences between word and word are those between inflection and inflection. Thus—

4. The Anglo-Saxon contained grammatical forms that are wanting in the present English.

A. S.	English
tung-ena	<i>tongues</i>
woid-a	<i>words</i>
treow-u	<i>tree-s</i>
sun-a	<i>son-s</i>
god an	<i>good</i>
god-re	<i>good</i>
god-ne	<i>good</i>
god-es	<i>good</i>

A. S.	English
god-ia	<i>good</i>
wi-t	<i>we two</i>
gi-t	<i>ye two</i>
hwo-ne	<i>who-ne</i>
we luf-iath	<i>we love</i>
we luf-odon	<i>we loved</i>
to luf-unnan	<i>to love</i>

5. The present English contains grammatical forms that were wanting in Anglo-Saxon. The words *ours, yours, theirs, hers*, were unknown in Anglo-Saxon.

6. Grammatical forms found both in the Anglo-Saxon and the English appear with different forms in the different languages.

A S.	English	A S	English
smith- <i>es</i>	smith's	hvá- <i>m</i>	who- <i>m</i>
smith- <i>as</i>	smith-s	blets- <i>ode</i>	bless- <i>ed, &c.</i>
hu- <i>e</i>	he		

§ 252 The English language stands to the Anglo-Saxon in the relation of a derived language to a mother tongue, or (changing the expression) the English may be called the Anglo-Saxon in its *most modern* form ; whilst the Anglo-Saxon may, with equal propriety, be called the English in its *most ancient* form. However, it is not so important to settle the particular mode of expressing the nature of this relation, as to become familiar with certain facts connected with recent languages as compared with the older ones from which they originate, facts which chiefly arise out of the tenses of the verbs, and the cases of the nouns.

The Middle English has inflections which are wanting in the Modern ; and the Early English has inflections which are wanting in the Middle.

The Middle Frisian has inflections which are wanting in the Modern ; and the Early Frisian has inflections which are wanting in the Middle.

The earlier the stage of the Dutch language, the more numerous the inflections

The earlier the stage of the High-German, the more numerous the inflections.

The inflection of the Mæso-Gothic is fuller than that of any of the allied languages.

The earlier the stage of the Danish, the more numerous the inflections.

The earlier the stage of the Swedish, the more numerous the inflections.

The earlier the stage of the Icelandic, the more numerous the inflections.

So much for the comparison between the different stages of one and the same language. It shows that the earlier the stage, the fuller the inflection ; the later the stage, the scantier the inflection ; in other words, it shows that as languages become modern, they lose their inflections.

There is another method of proving this rule ; and that is by the comparison of allied languages that change with different degrees of rapidity.

The Danish language has changed more rapidly than the

Swedish, and, consequently, has fewer of its original inflections.

The Swedish language has changed more rapidly than the Feroic, and, consequently, has fewer of its original inflections

The Feroic has changed more rapidly than the Icelandic, and, consequently, has fewer of its original inflections

The Icelandic has changed so slowly, that it retains almost all the original inflections of the Old Norse.

In all the languages allied to the English, the earlier the stage, the more numerous are the inflections, and *vice versâ*.

§ 253 The word *old* as applied to language has a double meaning.

The language of the United States was imported from England into America in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. The language of South Australia has been introduced within the present generation. In one sense, the American English is older than the Australian. It was earlier separated from the mother-tongue.

The language, however, of America may, in the course of time, become the least old of the two; the word *old* being taken in another sense. It may change with greater rapidity. It may lose its inflections. It may depart more from the structure of the mother-tongue, and preserve fewer of its *old* elements. In this sense the Australian (provided that it has altered least, and that it retain the greatest number of the *old* inflections) will be the older tongue of the two.

Now what may be said of the language of two countries, may be said of the dialects of two districts. The one dialect may run its changes apace; the other alter but by degrees. Hence, of two works in two such dialects, the one would appear older than the other, although in reality the two were cotemporary.

Hence, also, it is a lax expression to say that it is the old forms (the archaisms) that the provincial dialects retain. The provincial forms are archaic only when the current language changes more rapidly than the local idiom. When the local idiom changes fastest, the archaic forms belong to the standard mode of speech.

The provincial forms, *goand*, *slepan*, for *going* and *sleeping*, are archaic. Here the archaism is with the provincial form.

The forms *almost*, *horses*, *nought but*, contrasted with the

provincialisms, *onmost*, *hosses*, *nobbot*, are archaic. They have not been changed so much as they will be. Here the archaism (chat is, the nearer approach to the older form) is with the standard idiom. A sequestered locality is preservative of old forms. But writing and education are preservatives of them also.

§ 254. The study of the dialects of the *Old* and *Middle English* is complicated by a distinction, of some importance, between *simple transcription* and *transcription with accommodation*

The locality of the authorship of a composition is one thing. The locality of a MS is another.

Thus—the composition of a Devonshire poet may find readers in Northumberland, and his work be transcribed by a Northumbrian copyist. Now this Northumbrian copyist may do one of two things. he may transcribe the Devonian production *verbatim et literatim*, in which case his countrymen read the MS just as a Londoner reads Burns, *i e* in the dialect of the writer, and not in the dialect of the reader. On the other hand, he may *accommodate* as well as transcribe, *i e* he may change the non-Northumbrian into Northumbrian expressions, in which case his countrymen read the MS in their own rather than the writer's dialect.

Now it is clear, that in a literature where transcription *combined with accommodation* is as common as *simple* transcription, we are never sure of knowing the dialect of an author unless we also know the dialect of his transcriber. In no literature is there more of this *semi-translation* than in the Anglo-Saxon and the early English; a fact which sometimes raises difficulties, by disconnecting the evidence of authorship with the otherwise natural inferences as to the dialect employed; whilst, at others, it smoothes them away by supplying as many specimens of fresh dialects, as there are extant MSS. of an often copied composition.

From all this it follows, that the inquirer must talk of *copies* rather than of authors.

§ 255. Again—differences of spelling do not always imply differences of pronunciation, though perhaps they may be *primâ facie* of such. Still it is uncritical to be over-hasty in separating, as specimens of *dialect*, works, which, perhaps, only differ in being specimens of separate *orthographies*.

Again—the accommodation of a transcribed work is susceptible

of *degrees* It may go so far as absolutely to replace one dialect by another, or it may go no further than the omission of the more unintelligible expressions, and the substitution of others more familiar.

§ 256 Imitations of dialects must be used with great caution and address. An imitation of dialect may be so lax as to let its only merit consist in a deviation from the standard idiom.

Edgar in *King Lear*, when assuming madness, speaks after the fashion of a clown, and (so doing) speaks provincially. The particular dialect which he uses is uncertain. The locality in which it is used is Kent. But is the form Kentish? Many hold that there was a conventional dialect for the stage, that this was that of the West Country, inasmuch as the words put into the mouth of the character under notice, as well as many others, are most like those of Somerset and Devon—from which the *present* Kentish differs notably. On the other hand, a well-known Kentish specimen of the thirteenth century is full of West-country forms. If so, the dialect has altered—certainly since the time of the work in question, possibly since that of Shakspeare.

In Ben Jonson's *Tule of a Tub*, one (and more than one) of the characters speaks thus; his residence being the neighbourhood of London.—

Is it no sand? nor buttermilk? if 't be,
Ich 'am no zive, or watering-pot, to draw
Knots in your 'casions If you tust me, so—
If not, *pu'foime* 't your selves 'Oham no man's wife,
But resolute Hiltz you 'll rmd me in the buttzy.

Act I. Scene 1.

This is certainly Western, rather than South-Eastern, *at the present time at least.*

Not so, however, with the provincialisms of another of Ben Jonson's plays, the *Sad Shepherd*.—

—shew yourself
Tu all the sheepards, bauldly, gang amang hem.
Be mickle in their eye, frequent and fugeand.
And, gif they ask ye of Eiarne,
Or of these clathes, say that I ga' hem ye,
And say no moie. I ha' that walk in hand,
That web upon the luime, sall gar em thunke

Act II. Scene 3

Here the forms are Northern, the scene of the play being Sherwood Forest.

Is this the present dialect of Nottinghamshire? Scarcely. Was it the dialect of Nottinghamshire in Jonson's time? It *may* have been that, but it was, more probably, something conventional; or, possibly, it was the dialect best known to the author

§ 257 The same applies to the following lines from *The Reece's Tale*, which Chaucer puts into the mouth of one of his north-country clerks, a native of Strother, in the north-western part of the Deanery of Craven.

"Chaucer undoubtedly copied the language of some native, and the general accuracy with which he gives it shows that he was an attentive observer of all that passed around him. We subjoin an extract from the poem, in order to give our readers an opportunity of comparing southern and northern English, as they co-existed in the fifteenth century. It is from a MS that has never been collated, but which we believe to be well worthy the attention of any future editor of the *Canterbury Tales*. The italics denote variations from the printed text —

"John highte that oon and Aleyn highte that other
 Of oo town were thei boin that highte Stiother,
 Ffor in the north I can not tellen where
 Thus Aleyn maketh redy al his geie—
 And on an hois the sak he caste anon
 Fforth goth Aleyn the clerk and also John.
 With good sweide and bokeler by his side
 John knewe the weye—hym nedes no gide,
 And atte melle the sak a down he layth
 Aleyn spak first Al heyle, Symond—in fayth—
 How faies thu fayre daughter and thy wif?
 Aleyn welcome—quod Symkyn—be my lyf?
 And John also—how now, what do ye here?
 By God, quod John—Symond, nede has *na* peie
 Hym bihoves to serve him self that has na swayn,
 Or *ellis* he is a fool as clerkes sayn
 Oure maunciple I hope he wil be ded—
 Swa *uerkes* hym av the wanges in his heed
 And therefore is I come aad eek Aleyn—
 To grynde oure corn, and carye it *ham* agayne.
 I pray yow *spedes*† us *hethen* that ye may
 It shal be done, quod Symkyn, by my fay!
 What wol ye done while it is in hande?
 By God, right by the hopei wol I stande,
 Quod John, and see *how gates* the corn gas inne;

* Garnett, in *The Quarterly Review*, No. cx; also Garnett's *Philological Papers*.

† Apparently a *lapsus calami* for *spede* (Garnett)

I7t saugh I never, by my fader kynne,
 How that the hoper waggis til and fia !
 Aleyn answerde—John wil *ye* swa ?
 Than wil I be bynethe, by my crown,
 And see *how* *gates* the mele falles down
 In til the trowth—that sal be my disport
Quod John—In lath, I is of youre sort—
 I is as ille a mellei as *we* ye

* * * *

And when the mele is sakked and ybound
 This John goth out and fynt hushors away—
 And gan to crie, harow, and wele away !
 Our hois is lost—Aleyn, for Godde's bances,
 Stepe on thi feet—come of man attanes !
 Allas, our waideyn has his palfrey lorn !
 This Aleyn al forgot bothe mele and coin—
 Al was out of his mynde, his housbondeire
 What—whilke way is he goon ? he gan to crie
 The wyf come lepyng *in* at a ren,
 She saide—Allas, youre hors goth to the fen
 With wylde mares, as faste as he may go
 Unthank come on this hand that *band* him so—
 And he that *bet* sholde have knet the reyne
 Alas ! quod John, Aleyn, for Chuiste's peyne,
 Lay down thi sweide, and I *wil* myn alswa,
 I is ful *swift*—God wat—a is a *la*—
 By Goddes *herte* he sal nought scape us bathe.
 Why ne hadde thou put the capel in the lathe ?
 Il hayl, by God, Aleyn, thou *is* fomme "

This *may* be the pure Craven of Yorkshire in Chaucer's time ; but it may also have conventional *elements*

Sufficient, for the present, has been said to show the caution required in connecting the older with the present provincialisms. More, however, will be said upon it in the sequel.

CHAPTER III.

HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.—COMPLICATIONS.—WANT OF DATES.—THE ANGLO-SAXON CHARTERS, ETC

§ 253 THE early history of the English language is obscure. This is because almost all the comparisons which we can make between two different specimens of it are only approximate. We rarely know with sufficient accuracy what we are comparing.

There may be differences; but these may be differences of spelling rather than of speaking; of orthography rather than of language. There may be true differences of language; but they may, also, be due to differences of place rather than time, to dialect rather than development. In each of these alternatives we have elements of uncertainty.

Again—in Anglo-Saxon as elsewhere, it is by no means enough to know the date and place of a writer. We must know the date and place of the MS through which his work has come down to us. The orthography of the last edition of Shakespear is not the orthography of the first. In like manner the orthography of the later copies of an Anglo-Saxon author is different from the orthography of the earlier. Simple transcription is one thing. Transcription with accommodation to a change of either time or place (or both) is another. The extent to which this accommodation took place will be noticed elsewhere.

Such is the general view; and in considering details, we shall find that it is difficult to overvalue the importance of the cautions it suggests. It is to no moderate, but (on the contrary) to a very inordinate extent that the question of dialect, in both the Anglo-Saxon and the early English, complicates that of stage; both being complicated by the questions of original authorship and transcription.

Again—it cannot be too clearly understood, that, although the Anglo-Saxon literature, both in poetry and prose, is rich, the authors of the greater portion of it are unknown, and so are its date and place. We know the date of Alfred, and we know the date of Ælfric—who lived under Ethelred the Unready. But for the mass we have nothing but inferences and conjectures.

§ 259. We may verify this by taking the details of the chief Anglo-Saxon poems: these being the compositions for which the highest antiquity is claimed. Beginning with Beowulf, and looking only to the matter of its legends, we find fair grounds for attributing to it a high antiquity. It is true, indeed, that the exact history of the heroes who figure in its pages is, by no means, supported by cotemporary evidence. On the contrary, it is, in all probability, fictitious. Few will believe that A.D. 444 is the date of the birth of Hroðgar; or that names like Garmund, Offa, Hygelac, and others apply to cotemporaries of the third, second, or even fourth centuries. But though few.

enquirers, out of such *data* as these, will find anything very *positive*, there are many who will lay no little stress upon such a *negative* fact as the utter absence of any notice of insular England in a work in which the hero is an Angle and of which the language is Anglo-Saxon. Of these, some may agree with the inference that has long been drawn for them, viz, that the date of the poem in which this remarkable omission occurs transcends that of the first invasions of England, in confirmation of which view it may be added, that though Hengest is a prominent hero in the poem, it is a Hengest wholly unconnected with Britain. If so, the view of Mr Kemble, who suggests that, about A D 495, the poem may have been brought over from Germany by some of the Anglo-Saxons who accompanied Cerdic and Cyneric may be a correct one. Be this as it may, the negative fact of the absence of any mention of England is, *pro tanto*, in favour of antiquity.

But this is not all. In spite of its general heathen character, there are Christian allusions in the poem which bring it down to the time of St. Augustin—to the time of St Augustin or later.

More than this—the language is that of Cædmon, and the majority of the other Anglo-Saxon poems; or, at any rate, it is the language of the oldest of them. the text being from a MS. in two hands, one later than the other, and the older of no great antiquity.

Whatever then may be the antiquity of the matter of Beowulf, its language is that of the two copies which give us the poem—certainly no later than the newer, probably no older than the earlier of the two.

§ 260 *Mutatis mutandis*, the criticism of Beowulf is the criticism of the poem entitled the *Traveller's Song*, a professed record of realms and dynasties, with no one word in it in allusion to England—England the island,—British England. This qualification is necessary. There *is* a notice of Ongles—Ongle being the name of a district to the east of which the empire of the great Hermanric lay. This is the England of the Angles of *Germany*, and, for a negative fact, its value is a high one. It is admitted, however, by those who would make the author a cotemporary of Hermanric, that additions have been made in transcription. Be it so. The only text that has come down to us is in the *Codex Exoniensis*. The language is that of the other A. S. poems in general.

So is that of *The Battle of Finnesburgh*, a poem of which the matter is as old as Hengest; whatever Hengest's antiquity may be.

§ 261 The *Codex Vercellensis* contains, over and above a collection of A. S. homilies, six poems —(1) The Legend of St. Andrew. (2) The Legend of Helena, the mother of Constantine the Great, sometimes quoted as the Invention of the Cross. (3) The Fates of the Twelve Apostles. (4) The departed Soul's Address to the Body. (5) A Dream of the Holy Rood (6) A Religious Fragment, of ninety-two lines. The contents of the *Codex Eboracensis*, or *Ecceter Book*, just noticed, are more numerous still.

What are the dates of these two Codices? Probably there is but one date for the two. If so, we have a great mass of A. S. verse, of which, as far as the language is concerned, the time is known. Perhaps also the place perhaps even the name of the author or transcriber. Upon this point, however, the following passage may speak for itself

The dialect in which the poems are composed is that which is known as the West-Saxon, and which, from the period of the establishment of Wessex in possession of the supreme power in England, became the language of literature, the court, and the pulpit. In this the works attributed to Alfred are written we find it in *Beowulf* and *Cædmon*, and it still survives in the homilies of Archbishop Ælfric. The Vercelli poems present no noticeable deviation from the general form, nor does their language supply any data that can be relied on to settle either the time or the locality to which we owe them. There is, however, one passage which contains matter for consideration, and may possibly one day lead to a conclusion on both these points. Towards the close of the poem of *Elene* the author deserts the epic narrative which he has so long pursued, and runs off into a train of lyrical reflections, having himself and his fortunes for their subjects. In the course of these lines occur certain Runic characters, which when taken together compose the name *Cynewulf*, which recurs more than once in the *Ecceter Book* under precisely similar circumstances. There cannot be a doubt this *Cynewulf* was the author of the poem of *Elene*, probably of all the rest, and those likewise which occur in the other collection, and it becomes a matter of much interest to decide who he was. Unhappily this is not an easy task, the name itself is extremely common, and without any evidence leading us to fix upon any particular individual, it would perhaps be hardly justifiable to select as our author some dignified ecclesiastic merely because he bore the name. James Grimm, who seems to me to attribute too great an antiquity to the poems in the present form, hints that there was a bishop of Lindisfarne named *Cynewulf* who died in A.D. 780 but that bishop could neither have written nor read a word of the poems we possess, which would to him have been nearly as unintelligible as New German to an Englishman. No doubt these *may* be only translations from an earlier Northumbrian version, but this hypothesis has no basis what-

ever save the name Cynewulf, and that has been shown to be totally inadequate. Still less ground is there for another supposition of Gimm's that Aldhelm (who died in 705) may have been their author, and which appears to me to rest upon nothing more than the fact that Aldhelm was a poet for the philological ground, viz. that the author at one period addresses two persons (using the dual *git vos duo*) will certainly not show that Aldhelm was that author, even if we admit—which I do not—that *git* in this passage is the dual pronoun in question. There was, however, a Cynewulf who may possibly have a better claim to the honour: he was an abbot of Peterborough or Medelamstede, in which capacity he is mentioned with praise by Hugo Candidus, the historian of that abbey, as a man of extensive and various learning, and of great reputation among his contemporaries. He died 1014, and, according to my view, is more likely to have composed these poems than an earlier author.

Here, then, between such authorities as Gimm and Kemble is a difference of some 300 years. and that on a question which touches the date of more than one-half of the whole mass of A. S. poetry.

Of Cædmon, more will be said when we treat of the dialects of the Anglo-Saxon.

§ 262 The continuation of our remarks applies to the great repertorium of matter which constitutes Kemble's elaborate work entitled *Codex Diplomaticus Ævi Saxonici*, in which we have, in five volumes, a collection of charters, writs, wills, and similar documents. Most of them are in Latin; some in Anglo-Saxon; some in both Latin and Anglo-Saxon. In some the Anglo-Saxon portion may be found in two forms, arising from difference of either date or dialect, or both. Some of these are marked by the editor as spurious. Most of them have dates. some both date and place. This being the case, it looks as if the foregoing statements were contradicted, or, at any rate, that they required modification. As the collection is one of the highest value, I subjoin the following list of those portions of it which are either Anglo-Saxon or contain Anglo-Saxon elements; the Anglo-Saxon elements being generally the boundaries of the different estates.

Vol 1.

No 1. Aethelberht of Kent. April 28, 604. Charter in Latin, boundary in A. S. Short.

No 90. Aethelbald of Mercia. A.D. 716-743. Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S. Gloucestershire.

No 105. Aethelbald. A.D. 743-745. Charter in A. S. Worcester-shire.

No 144. Aethelberht of Wessex and Kent. 781. Compare with No 1.

No 154 Offa of Mercia Short Charter in Latin, translation in A S Date in the Latin dcc^o.lxxx^o.vi, in the A S 689

No 166 Offa of Mercia Charter in Latin with a few lines in A S containing the words *tun*, *comb*, and *amber*, names of measures A D 791-796

No 183 Charter in Latin of Bishop Deneberht Thursday, October 6, A D 803 Followed by an endowment in A S 821-823 Worcestershire

No 191 Cuthred of Kent Charter in Latin Before A D 805 Indorsed by Aethelnoth and Gaenbuh 805-831 Anglo-Saxon

No 204 Coc'nwulf of Mercia A D 814 Charter, Latin, boundaries, in A S

No 207 Ditto Charter in Latin, with a few A S words in the middle

No 219 Beornwulf of Mercia A D 825 Charter in A S

No 226 Wulfred, Oswulf, and Beornthryth A D 805-831 Charter in A S Kent (?)

No 228 Eadwald Charter in A S

No 229 Ealhbreg. About 831 Charter in A S

No 231 Lufa A D 832 Charter in A S

No. 235 Abba A D 835 Charter in A S

No 237 Wiglaf of Mercia A D 836 Charter in Latin Two short appendixes, of similar import, in A S Worcestershire (?)

No 238 Badanoth A D 837 Charter in A S

Vol. 2

No 241 Aethelwulf of Wessex A D 839 Charter in Latin A few lines in A S. at end

No 243 Berhtwulf of Mercia A D 840 Charter in A S

No 259 Aethelwulf of Wessex A D 847 Dec 26 Charter in Latin, boundaries in A S

No 266 Abbot Ceolred A D 852 Charter in A S Lincolnshire or Northamptonshire—parts about Peterboro (?)

No 272 Aethelwulf of Wessex, boundaries in A S April 23, A D 854

No 276. Aethelwulf of Mercia A D 855 Charter in Latin, A S at end

No 281 Aethelberht of Kent A D 858 Charter in Latin, boundaries in A S Indorsement at end

No 282 Plegred A D 859 Latin and A S

No 285 Aethelberht of Wessex A D 860-862 Charter in Latin boundaries in A S

No 287 Aethelberht of Wessex. A D 862 Charter in Latin boundaries in A S

No 288 Aethelberht of Wessex A D. 863 Charter in Latin, with several A S words in it, at end four lines of A S The forms *sello* and *for geof.* = *selle* and *for geofe* = *give*

No 295 Aethelred of Wessex and Kent. A D. 868. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A S Compare 1, and 145

No 296 Cialulf A D. 868. Charter in Latin, two indorsements in A S.

No 298 Burglred of Mercia A D 869 Boundaries in A S.

No 301. Aelfred Date of original (?) A.D. 871. The text in Semi-Saxon is given as "a translation of the Saxon original made towards the end of the 12th century." *Note of Editor*

No 302. Aethelred of Wessex A.D. 867-871 Texts Semi-Saxon

No 303. Werfirth. No date Forms *biddu* and *hulsigu*

No 310 Aelfred A.D. 871-878 A.S. and Latin

No 313. Aethelred A.D. 883. Charter chiefly A.S.

No. 314 Aelfred of Wessex A.D. 880-885 A long charter in A.S.

No 317. Duke Alfred A.D. 871-889 Charter in A.S.

No 327. Werfirth Charter in A.S.

No 328 No name No date Considered, however, as after A.D. 900. Charter in A.S.

No 339 Werfirth. A.D. 904 Charter at the beginning and end in Latin, in the middle in A.S.

No 353. Athelstan. A.D. 931, Nov. 12 Charter in Latin, boundaries, conclusion, and endorsement in A.S.

No 359. Athelstan English rhyme

No 360. Athelstan. English rhyme See . . .

No 364 Athelstan. May 28 A.D. 934 Charter in Latin, boundaries in A.S.

No 369 Athelstan A.D. 937 Charter in Latin, boundaries in A.S.

No 377. Athelstan A.D. 939 Charter in Latin, boundaries in A.S.

No 385. Edmund. A.D. 940. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A.S.

No. 399. Edmund A.D. 944. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A.S.

No. 409 Edmund About 946. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A.S.

No 413 Eadred A.D. 947 Charter in Latin, boundaries (short) in A.S.

No. 424. Eadred A.D. 949 Charter in Latin, a line in the middle, and indorsement, A.S.

No. 429 Wulfic. About 949 Charter in A.S.

No. 533. Edgar A.D. 955 En onomatos cyriou doxa! Al wisdom, &c., in A.S.

No 444 Edwy A.D. 956. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A.S.

No. 477. Ethelweald A.D. 958 Charter in A.S.

No. 478. The same, in a modern form.

No. 492. Beorhtic and Ælfswyth Charter in A.S.

No. 491. Oswald. A.D. 962 Charter in A.S. Worcestershire.

No. 495. Oswald. A.D. 962 Charter in Latin, boundaries, A.S. Worcester-shire

No 499 Eadgifu. A.D. 960-963 Charter in A.S.

No 506 Oswald. A.D. 963. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A.S. Worcester-shire (?)

No 507. Oswald A.D. 963. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A.S. Worcester-shire (?).

No 508 Oswald A.D. 963. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A.S. Worcester-shire (?).

No. 509. Oswald. A.D. 963. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A.S. Worcester-shire (?)

No. 511. Oswald A.D. 963 Charter in A.S.

The third volume carries us over the comparatively short period of forty years; and illustrates the reigns of Edgar and Ethelred the Unready. The Anglo-Saxon element has increased; more especially in its application to the description of the boundaries. What has hitherto been exceptional is now the rule, viz the adjunct in Anglo-Saxon, by which the bounds of the estate under notice are given. The ordinary term by which these are signified is *gemæro*, a neuter plural of *gemære* = *limes*, and = *limites*. It is a word of which the origin is doubtful. Grimm suggests that it may be Slavonic, Kemble that it is Celtic. *Meare* = *mark*—is a rarer word, as is its compound *land-meore*. *Landsear* = *land-shire*—is rarer still, being found “in a set of comparatively modern charters, and those principally belonging to the extreme south of England.” If this be the case it gives us an instrument of criticism.

Vol 3

No 529.	Oswald	A.D. 966.	Worcestershire.	
No 530.	Oswald.	A.D. 966.	Worcestershire	
No 531.	Oswald.	A.D. 966.	Worcestershire.	
No 533.	Eadgar.	A.D. 967.	Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.	
No 534.	Eadgar.	A.D. 967.	Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.	
No 535.	Eadgar.	A.D. 967.	Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.	
No 536.	Eadgar.	A.D. 967.	Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.	
No 537.	Eadgar.	A.D. 967.	Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.	
No 538.	Oswald.	A.D. 967.	Worcestershire.	
No 539.	Oswald.	A.D. 967.	Worcestershire.	
No 540.	Oswald.	A.D. 967.	Worcestershire	
No 541.	Oswald.	A.D. 967.	Worcestershire.	
No 542.	Oswald.	A.D. 967.	Worcestershire.	
No 543.	Eadgar.	A.D. 968.	Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.	Wilt.
No 544.	Eadgar.	A.D. 968.	Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.	Wilt.
No 545.	Eadgar.	A.D. 968.	Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.	Wilt.
No 546.	Eadgar.	A.D. 968.	Charter, Latin, Rubric, A. S.	
No 547.	Eadgar.	A.D. 968.	Boundaries in A. S.	
No 548.	Eadgar.	A.D. 969.	Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.	
No 549.	Oswald.	A.D. 969.	Boundaries, A. S.	Worcestershire.
No 550.	Oswald.	A.D. 969.	Rubric, &c., A. S.	Worcestershire.
No 551.	Oswald.	A.D. 969.	Rubric, &c., A. S.	Worcestershire.
No 552.	Oswald.	A.D. 969.	Rubric, &c., A. S.	Worcestershire.
No 553.	Oswald.	A.D. 969.	Rubric, &c., A. S.	Worcestershire.
No 554.	Oswald.	A.D. 969.	Rubric, &c., A. S.	Worcestershire.
No 556.	Eadgar.	A.D. 969.	Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.	
No 557.	Oswald.	A.D. 969.	Charter, A. S.	
No 558.	Oswald.	A.D. 969.	Charter, Latin, with a few A. S. words	
Short Rubric, A. S.				
No 559.	Oswald.	A.D. 969.	Boundaries in A. S.	

- No 560. Oswald. A.D. 969. Boundaries in A. S.
 No 561. Oswald. A.D. 969. Boundaries in A. S.
 No 563. Eadgar. A.D. 970. Charter, Latin, an addition in A. S.
 No 567. Eadgar. A.D. 971. Charter, Latin, with A. S. sentences.
 No 568. Eadgar. A.D. 971. Boundaries, A. S.
 No 569. Eadgar. A.D. 971. Boundaries, A. S.
 No 570. Eadgar. A.D. 971. Long text in A. S.
 No 571. Eadgar. A.D. 971. Boundaries in A. S.
 No 572. Eadgar. A.D. 971. Boundaries in A. S.
 No 573. Eadgar. A.D. 971. Rubric in A. S.
 No 577. Eadgar. A.D. 973. Boundaries in A. S.
 No 578. Eadgar. A.D. 973. Boundaries in A. S.
 No 583. Eadgar. A.D. 960-975. Charter in A. S. Compare No. 512
 No 585. Eadgar. A.D. 974. Rubric in A. S.
 No 586. Oswald. A.D. 974. Boundaries in A. S.
 No 587. Eadgar. A.D. 975. This Charter is in Latin. So are the boundaries. They are remarkable, however, for giving the French article *la*—"hinc metis prefatum ius hinc inde giratur. Primo a Welpul, de Welpul usque la dioue, de la droue, usque Chekewell," &c. I should add that the Charter is obelized
- No 588. Eadgar. A.D. 975. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S. *Do so*
 No 589. Eadgar. A.D. 975. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 590. Eadgar. A.D. 975. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 591. Æthelwold. A.D. 963-975.
 No 592. Eadgar. A.D. 975. Charter in Latin, boundaries, A. S. rubric, A. S.
- No 593. Ælfheah. A.D. 965-975. Charter in A. S.
 No 594. Eadgar. A.D. 963-975. Charter in A. S.
 No 595. Eadgar. A.D. 976. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 596. Oswald. A.D. 977. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 597. Eadgar. A.D. 977. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 598. Eadgar. A.D. 978. Charter in Latin, translation in A. S.
 No 611. Eadweard. A.D. 977. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 612. Oswald. A.D. 977. Charter in A. S.
 No 614. Oswald. A.D. 977. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 616. Oswald. A.D. 977. Charter in Latin, conclusion and rubric in A. S.
- No 617. Oswald. A.D. 977. Charter in Latin, conclusion in A. S.
 No 618. Oswald. A.D. 978. Charter in Latin, conclusion in A. S.
 No 619. Oswald. A.D. 978. Charter in Latin, conclusion and rubric in A. S.
- No 620. Oswald. A.D. 978. Charter in Latin and A. S.
 No 621. Æthelred. A.D. 979. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 622. Æthelred. A.D. 979. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 623. Oswald. A.D. 979. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 624. Ethelred. A.D. 980. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 626. Ethelred. A.D. 980. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 627. Oswald. A.D. 980. Charter in Latin and A. S.
 No 628. Brihtic Grun. A.D. 964-980. Charter in A. S.
 No 632. Ethelred. A.D. 982. Charter in Latin.

- No 633. Ethelred. A.D. 952. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 636. Ethelred. A.D. 983. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 638. Ethelred. A.D. 983. Charter in Latin, boundaries and rubric in A. S.
 No 639. Ethelred. A.D. 983. Charter, Latin, Rubric, A. S.
 No 640. Ethelred. A.D. 983. Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.
 No 641. Ethelred. A.D. 984. Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.
 No 642. Ethelred. A.D. 984. Charter in A. S.
 No 643. Ethelred. A.D. 984. Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.
 No 645. Oswald. A.D. 984. Charter, Latin, boundaries and rubric, A. S.
 No 646. Oswald. A.D. 984. Charter, Latin, boundaries and rubric, A. S.
 No 648. Ethelred. A.D. 985. Charter, Latin, boundaries and Rubric, A. S.
 No 649. Oswald. A.D. 985. Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.
 No 650. Ethelred. A.D. 985. Charter, Latin, boundaries and rubric, A. S.
 No 651. Oswald. A.D. 985. Charter, Latin boundaries and rubric, A. S.
 No 652. Ethelred. A.D. 985. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 653. Oswald. A.D. 985. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 654. Ethelred. A.D. 986. Charter in Latin, boundaries, Latin and A. S. mixed.
 No 655. Ethelred. A.D. 986. Charter, Latin, boundaries and rubric, A. S.
 No 657. Ethelred. A.D. 987. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 658. Ethelred. A.D. 987. Charter in Latin, boundaries and rubric in A. S.
 No 660. Oswald. A.D. 987. Charter in Latin, boundaries and rubric in A. S.
 No 662. Ethelred. A.D. 988. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 663. Ethelred. A.D. 988. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 664. Ethelred. A.D. 988. Charter, Latin, boundaries and rubric A. S.
 No 665. Ethelred. A.D. 988. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 667. Oswald. A.D. 988. Charter in Latin, boundaries and rubric in A. S.
 No 670. Oswald. A.D. 986. Charter in Latin, boundaries and rubric in A. S.
 No 671. Oswald. A.D. 986. Short Rubric A. S.
 No 673. Ethelred. A.D. 990. Charter, Latin boundaries and rubric, A. S.
 No 674. Oswald. A.D. 990. Charter, Latin, boundaries and rubric, A. S.
 No 675. Oswald. A.D. 990. Charter in A. S.
 No 676. Oswald. A.D. 991. Charter in A. S.
 No 679. Oswald. A.D. 972-992. Charter, A. S.
 No 680. Oswald. After 972. Charter, A. S.
 No 681. Oswald. After 972. Charter, A. S.
 No 682. Oswald. After 972. Charter, A. S.
 No 683. Oswald. A.D. 978-992. Charter, A. S.
 No 685. Cædred. Will in A. S.

- No 687. Æthelred. A.D. 994. Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.
 No 688. Æthelred. A.D. 995. Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.
 No 692. Æthelred. A.D. 995. Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.
 No 693. Wynflæd. A. S.
 No 694. Wulfwain.
 No 695. Eadulf. A.D. 996. Charter, Latin, boundaries A. S.
 No 698. Æthelred. A.D. 997. Charter, Latin, boundaries and rubric,
 A. S.
 No 699. Æthelric. A.D. 977. Charter A. S.
 No 702. Æthelred. A.D. 999. Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.
 No 701. Æthelred. Charter in A. S.
 No 705. Æthelred. A.D. 1001. Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S. *Donso*,
 A. S.
 No 706. Æthelred. A.D. 1001. Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S. *Donso*,
 A. S.
 No 708. Æthelric. A.D. 1002-1014. A. S.
 No 709. Æthelred. A.D. 1004. Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.
 No 710. Æthelred. A.D. 1004. Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.
 No 712. Æthelred. No date. Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.
 No 713. Æthelred. No date. Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.
 No 714. Æthelred. A.D. 1005. Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.
 No 715. Æthelred. A.D. 1006. Charter, Latin, translation, A. S.
 No 716. Ælric. A.D. 996-1006. Charter in A. S.
 No 717. Ælthryth. A.D. 996-1006. A. S.
 No 720. Æthelred. A.D. 1112. Charter, Latin, boundaries A. S.
 No 721. Queen Ælgyfu. A.D. 1012. Will in A. S.
 No 722. Æthelstan Ætheling. Will in A. S.
 No 723. Æthelred. A.D. 1016. Charter Latin, boundaries A. S.
 No 724. Leofsme. A.D. 1016. Charter, Latin, boundaries, A. S.

Vol 4

The fourth volume contains the reigns of Canute, and Edward the Confessor; and its contents differ from those of the preceding ones in being not only to a great extent Anglo-Saxon, but in being more Anglo-Saxon than Latin. Without giving the details, we may state that, out of 254 charters, 137 are in the vernacular language; the proportion of wills and covenants to proper charters being considerable. On the other hand, the number of spurious and suspicious documents is increased. The asterisks are numerous, but, besides this, it is especially stated in the preface that the author does not pledge himself to the authority of every charter which appears *without* one. There are "difficulties at this late time, which are not found, in the same measure, at earlier periods, and the canons laid down in the preface to the first volume become for the most part inapplicable in the fourth. Indeed, almost the only

test that can be successfully applied is that of anachronism; and it is probable that, if, at a later period forgery were resorted to for the purpose of establishing or defending claims to land, the date and form assigned to the false documents would have been those of Eadweard's reign.

Vol 5

- No 965 Cœnwulf of Wessex. Charter in Latin boundaries in A S
 No. 987. Eithwald of Suiry, before 675. Charter in Latin, modern boundaries in A S
 No 990 Pope Agatho A.D 680. Charter in Latin, same in A S
 No 997 In of Wessex A.D 701 Charter in Latin, boundaries in A S
 No 1000. Nunna of Sussex A.D 725. Charter in Latin boundaries in A S
 No 1002 Ethelward of Wessex A.D 737 Charter in Latin boundaries in A S
 No. 1006. Cuthred of Wessex A.D 749 Charter in Latin, boundaries in A S
 No 1051 Egbert of Wessex A.D 824 Charter in Latin, boundaries in A S
 No 1033 Egbert of Wessex August 19, 825. Charter in Latin boundaries in A. S
 No. 1035 Egbert of Wessex August 19, 825. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S
 No 1036. Egbert of Wessex A.D. 826. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No 1037. Egbert of Wessex A.D. 826 Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No. 1038. Egbert of Wessex A.D. 826 Charter in Latin, boundaries in A S.
 No. 1039. Egbert of Wessex Charter in Latin, boundaries in A S.
 No. 1048. Ethelwolf of Wessex Nov 5th, 848. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No. 1049. Ethelwolf of Wessex A.D. 850. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No. 1050. Ethelwolf of Wessex. April 22nd, 854 Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No. 1051. Ethelwolf of Wessex A.D. 854. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No. 1053. Ethelwolf of Wessex A.D. 854. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S., same in Saxon.
 No. 1054. Ethelwolf of Wessex A.D. 854. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No. 1056. Ethelwolf of Wessex A.D. 856 Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No. 1057. Ethelwolf of Wessex. Charter in A. S
 No. 1059. Eithred of Wessex. A.D. 862. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S

- No. 1061. Ethelred of Wessex A.D. 868. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
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- No. 1063. Bishop Tunbriht A.D. 877. Charter in Latin, boundaries, A. S.
- No. 1064. Alfred A.D. 881. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
- No. 1065. Alfred A.D. 882. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
- No. 1066. Ethelred, Duke of Mercia A.D. 884. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
- No. 1069. Alfred Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
- No. 1070. Ceolwin, Charter in Latin and A. S., boundaries in A. S.
- No. 1073. Ethelred, Duke of Mercia A.D. 896. Charter in A. S.
- No. 1075. Ethelred, Duke of Mercia A.D. 873.—899. Charter in A. S.
- No. 1077. Edward of Wessex A.D. 900. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
- No. 1078. Edward of Wessex A.D. 901 Charter in Latin, boundaries and rubric in A. S.
- No. 1079. Bishop Denewulf. A.D. 902. Charter in A. S.
- No. 1080. Edward of Wessex A.D. 903. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
- No. 1083. Edward of Wessex About 904. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
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- No. 1095. Edward of Wessex. About 910. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
- No. 1096. Edward of Wessex A.D. 910. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
- No. 1097. Bishop Wilfrith. A.D. 922 Charter in A. S. and Latin form in U.
- No. 1099. Ethelstan. A.D. 926. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
- No. 1101. Æthelstan. April 16th, A.D. 928. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
- No. 1102. Æthelstan. March 23rd, 931. Charter in Latin, boundaries and rubric in A. S.
- No. 1103. Æthelstan. July 21st, 931. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
- No. 1105. Æthelstan. A.D. 931. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
- No. 1107. Æthelstan. Aug. 30th, 932. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S. rubric in A. S.
- No. 1108. Æthelstan. A.D. 932. Charter in Latin, boundaries and rubric in A. S.

- No. 1109. Æthelstan. A.D. 933. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No. 1110. Æthelstan. Dec. 16th, 934. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S. Rubric and translation in A. S.
 No. 1111. Æthelstan. A.D. 935. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S. Rubric in A. S.
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 No. 1284. Ethelred. About 988. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
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 No. 1319. Ethelred. A.D. 1011. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
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 No. 1318. Canute. A.D. 1033. Charter in Latin, boundaries and rubric in A. S.
 No. 1319. Canute. About 1033. Charter in A. S.
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 No. 1322. Canute. A.D. 1035. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
 No. 1323. Canute. About 1036. Charter in A. S.
 No. 1325. Canute. Charter in A. S.

- No. 1327. Canute. Charter in A. S.
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 No. 1332. Edward. A.D. 1042. Charter in Latin, boundaries in A. S.
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 No. 1337. Aelfgyfu. About 1050. Charter in A. S.
 No. 1339. Will of Ketel. A.D. 1055. In A. S.
 No. 1340. Wulfgeat. About 1060. Charter in A. S.
 No. 1341. Edward. A.D. 1061. Charter in A. S.
 No. 1342. Edward. Charter in A. S.
 No. 1343. Edward. Charter in A. S.
 No. 1346. Edward. Charter in A. S.
 No. 1347. Bishop Ethelwold. Charter in Latin, translation in A. S.
 No. 1349. Wiofkytel. Charter in A. S.

The rule that documents bearing the name of Edward cannot be of earlier and may be of later date than his reign still holds good. It does more. It must be held to imply a later rather than a cotemporary origin. Nor is it difficult to see why this should be the case. Over and above the general likelihood of any particular MS. being a modified copy of the original document rather than the original document itself, there is in the case of *The Confessor* the additional chance of forgery. In any document made up for the purpose of establishing or defending a claim to lands under the earlier Norman kings the "date and form assigned to the false documents would have been those of Eadweard's reign."

§ 263. With these preliminaries we may notice some of the more instructive documents—instructive, so far as the present question (which is that of the *dates* * of the several specimens of the Anglo-Saxon language) is concerned. Herein, it is most important to know how far the antiquity of a given sample is real or fictitious.

The first two are given because the earlier passes for the earliest we have. The two, however, are essentially the same—this identity being a suspicious element.

Let us, however, assume their antiquity. Doing this, we shall find that the Anglo-Saxon portion of them is neither more nor less than the ordinary Anglo-Saxon of Ælfric and Alfred. What, then, is the case? Has the language stood three centuries without alteration, or is the language of Alfred and Ælfric founded on that of Ethelbert? If so, the language of Alfred and Ælfric is

* The *dates* rather than the *dialects*. These last form the subject of another enquiry. The two questions, however, are closely allied, and greatly mixed-up with one another.

not the ordinary Anglo-Saxon of their times. Individually, I believe that both the documents are far later than the reign of the King whose name they bear. Those, however, who admit their antiquity in *form* as well as matter have to explain how it is that their language is so new, or (taking the other alternative) how it is that that of Ælfic is so old: or else they must hold that from the seventh to the tenth century the language was stationary. This is not impossible; though improbable.

The charters, however, in question, if genuine in *form* and matter, are, as has been stated, the oldest samples of Anglo-Saxon in existence and, on the small chance of their being this, they command notice.

§ 264.

AETHILBERHT OF KENT, April 28th, A.D. 604 (No 1)

Regnante in perpetuum Domino nostro Iesu Christo Salvatore! Mense Aprili, sub die IIII KL Maias, Indictione VII, Ego Aethilberhtus Rex filio meo Eadbaldo admonitionem Catholicae Fidei optabilem Nobis est aptum semper inquirere qualiter per loca sanctorum, pro animarum remedio vel stabilitate Salutis nostrae, aliquid de portione, terrae nostrae in subsidium servorum Dei, deuotissima uoluntate, debeamus offerre. Ideoque tibi Sancte Andrea, tuaeque Ecclesiae quae est constituta in ciuitate Hiofribien, ubi praesesse uidetur Iustus Episcopus, trado aliquantulum telluris meae. Hic est terminus meae domus hanc Suðgeate west, andlanges wealles, oð norðlanan to stiaete, and swa east fram stiaete oð Doddinghyman, ongan Brādgeat. Siquis uero augeat uoluerit hanc ipsam donationem, augeat illi Dominus dies bonos. Et si praesumpserit minuire aut contrahere, in conspectu Dei sit damnatus et Sanctorum eius, hic et in aeterna saecula, nisi emendauerit ante eius transitum quod inique gessit contra Christianitatem nostram. Hoc, cum consilio Lauenen episcopi et omnium principum meorum, signo Sanctae Crucis confirmaui, eosque iussi ut mecum idem facerent. Amen

AETHILBERHT OF WESSEX AND KENT, A.D. 781. (No 144.

*Obelized *)*

In Nomine Domini nostri Iesu Christi cui patent cuncta penetralia cordis et corporis. Ego Ethelberht Rex [Occidentalium Saxonum necnon] Cantuariorum concedo Hiofensis Ecclesiae antistiti donum aliquantulum terre iuris mei infra mema supradicte ciuitatis in parte aquilonali id est fram Doddinc hyman oð ða Bradan gatan east be wealle and swa eft suð oð ðaet East geat and swa west be strete oð Doddinc hyman and ðico hagan be eastan porte butan wealle and ðar to feower aeccias mæde be westan ee. hoc in augmentum monasterii tibi concessi Sancti Andree. Ut mea donatio immobilis permaneat semper. Et si quis hanc meam donationem augeat uoluerit augeat Dominus ei utam. Si quis uero tunc minuire presumpserit sit separatus a conspectu Domini in die iudicii nisi prius emendauerit ante eius transitum quod nequiter gessit.

Actum Domnice Incarnationis DCCCLII.

* The word *obelized* means that the character is marked with an asterisk by Mr Kemble, as a sign that he considers it spurious.

Ego Ethelberhtus Rex hanc meam donationem signo sancte crucis confirmavi

Ego Geanbeht Archiepiscopus corroboraui. Ego Deora Episcopus consignavi

Signum manus Uualhard Signum manus Uban Signum manus Udan
Signum manus Ealhere Signum manus Dudec Signum manus Wullaf

§ 265. The following is given because Offa was a King of *Mercia*. Of the Anglo-Saxon, the first clause is no part of the original deed. The second may or may not be. If, however, it be this, it is little more than West-Saxon spoken in Mercia. For this, however, see § 313.

OFFA, A D 789 (*No 154 Worcestershire*)

Voluit curriculo temporum annis, DCC^oLXX^oVI^o Anno Dominicæ ac Salutiferæ Incarnationis, Offa, rex Merciorum, in XXXII anno regni sui concessit quandam ruri particulam, mansam scilicet unam, in villa quam incolæ Biadeuuesse appellant, monachis sanctæ Mariæ Gugoinsis Ecclesiæ, cum testum affirmatione et excommunicationum adiunctione. Eo videlicet tenore ruri et amplitudinis quo ipsemet habuit in tempore suæ dominationis

Egomet uero Offa, Diuina dispensationis gratia Rex Merciorum, hoc meum donum affirmando propriis manibus sanctæ Crucis signaculum suppono. Ego quoque Aldredus Subregulus Ungoinæ ciuitatis hæc eadem confirmo. Ego etiam Eadberht Episcopus hæc eadem consigno. Ego similiter Berhtun hæc eadem contestor * * * * *

(1) Ða ða waeron ágane fif hundred wintia and nigan and hundeahtatig wintra fram Custes gebyrtide Offa Kyning on þam an and þattigan geara his kynedomes geþe ane hide landes aet Biadewassan into þam Mynstie on Wigrecestre þam blóthian to lryce a on éce swá full and swá forð swa he seolf hæfde.

(2) Ic Offa þurh Cristes gyfe Myrcena Kining ðas mine geoue mid róde tácnge gefaestnige. Ic Aldred Wigrecestres Undercning þas ylce geoue gefaestnige. Ic Eadberht Bisceop þas ylce þmg gefaestnige. Ic Berhtun ðis ylce gefaestnige.

§ 266.

In the following, the forms in Italics—*i. e.* the *o* and *u* in *sello* and *forgeofu*—are really archaic. Whether, however, this be due to dialect or to date is uncertain.

AETHELBERHT, A D 863 (*No 288*)

In Nomine Tmo Diuino Regi regnanti in perpetuum Domino Deo Sabaoth cui patent cuncta penetralia cordis et corporis terrestria simul et celestia nec non super ethera regnans in sedibus altis ima et alta omnia sua ditione gubernans cuius amore et eternis premis ego Eðelberht rex Occidentalium Saxonum nec non et Cantuariorum dabo et concedo meo fidelis ministrio et principi meo Eðelhedo aliquam partem terre ruri mei hoc est VIII aratra in illa loco huius nominati Meisaham in sempiternum hereditatem sibi abendum et possidendum feliciterque in dies eius perficiendum post dies eius cuiusque. hei

heredi placuerit deheredandum liberam per omnia habeat potestatem cum
campis silvis pratis pascuis aquis nonationibus pascuis porcorum simulque,
mariscis et cum omnibus utilitatibus nre ac recte ad eandem terram pertinen-
tibus hoc feci pro eius humi hobocientia simulque pro eius placatu atque
competenti pecunia quam ab eo accepi hoc est cccc tos mancuses anni prius-
sum hanc autem terram supranominatam et Meisaham ego Eðelbeah Rex ab
omni seruitute legali operis intus et foris magnis ac modicis notis et ignotis
perenniter hueratio nisi his tantum tribus causis hoc est expeditione et armis
munitione pontisque constructione et illud foras reddat quot sru intus faciendi
appetat hec autem terra prenommata his notissimis terminibus circumcin-
gitur a meridie et ab Occidente Stui usque Blacannre ab Aquilone et ab Oriente
Eadwaldes Bocland to brade buinan estque una semis ariata ab Oriente Sture
que iacet at confinium usque Garulfi Regis ministri to Meisaham et Moda be
eastanee sue ðei mid mahte to ðem lande lampað unamque salis coquinariam
hoc est i sealteinstcall et ðei cota to in illa loco ubi nominatu Herewic et
iiii canis transductionem in silba Regis sex ebdomades a Die Pentecosten
hubi alteri homines silbam cedunt hoc est in regis communione hec sunt pascua
porcorum que nostra lingua Saxhonica Denbera nominamus hoc est Husneah
Eðeðingdenn Heibedingdenn Wafingdenn Widefingdenn Bleecingdenn nec non
xx statera casei of meisce ad Meisaham reddatu et xl agnos et xi uelleria ou-
um et duorum dierum refectio vel xxx argenteis hoc est semicumb libia redma-
tur hsi quis uero heredum successorumque meorum regum principum ducum
optatum suae exactorum hanc meam donationem seruare uoluerit seruetur ei
desuper benedictio sempiterna hsi autem absit quid non optamus alicuius perso-
nis homo diabolica temeritate instigatus surrexerit qui hanc meam donationem
vel hueritatem infringere vel minuire aut in alut conbertere quam a nobis
constitutum est temptauerit sciat se ante tribunal summi et etiam iudicis ratio-
nem esse reddituram nisi ante digna hsatisque placabili factione deo et homini-
bus emendare studuerit haec est autem hec eadem donatio vel hueritas in illa
loco que uocitatur Biencfeld anno Domnice Incarnationem dcccxlvi indic-
tione xi testibus consentientibus et signo Sancte Crucis Christi confirmantibus
quorum hic nomina infra ac in scedula patefacta lquesunt

Io Eadwald sello and forgeofu þis lond et wifes beage Agustines lugum into
hioia beode mine sawle to aie and to leedome and iow fei godes lufe bidde þet
ge hit munre sawle nyt gedeo and me hit for gode leame eow to clmessum
Amen

§ 267. The next is suspiciously like the two grants of Aethelbert's.

AETHELRED, A.D. 868. (No 295.)

Regnante in perpetuum Domino Deo nostro Omnipotenti Sabaoth, cui patent
cuncta penetralia cordis et corporis, terrestria simul et coelestia, necnon super
aethera regnans in sedibus altissima et alta omnia sua dicione gubernans!
Cuius amore et aeternis praemiis ego Aethelred Rex Occidentalium Saxonum nec
non et Cantuariorum, dabo et concedo amico meo Cuðuulfo Hiofensis Eccle-
siae Episcopo, aliquam partem terrae iuris mei, hoc est in duo loco, alia in ciui-
tate Dorobienae, alia in aquilone ciuitate marisco et prata longe et lato alta et
aqueflua usque ad flumini modico et magno Meadoweage flumina uocatus, et
ueribracho et fretos ciculo et cingulo Incipiunt pellati purgfiat, et scipfiat
pausunt in flumine Hei sint þa gemæia of Miodowegan fram Dodinghyman
west andlanges stræte ut of weall and swa be norðan wege ut of Lialanges

cota and swa be Liabinges cotum oð þæt se weall eest sciat and swa east Linnan wealle oppamclan gatan angæn Dodinglinnan and swa ðanne suðan geraht fiam ða gatan andlanges weges be eastan þi lande suð oð Dodinghyrman . þanne be norðan wealle meis and meþa oð mediwægan sindan þa gemæra . fram madawegan linnan twam flatum tala sint genemde . puiffiat and scipfiot ða geceadað þæt land westan and eastan oð ðæt weallæsten þus hit is befangen mid firodome amen soð Ego Aethelred Rex hæc omnia dabo et concedo Cuðulfo meo dilecto fratri et Episcopo in sempiternam hereditatem, sibi habendum et possidendum feliciterque in dies eius perfruendum, et post dies eius cuicumque ei herede placuerit ad derelinquendum, liberam ab omni seruitute et regali subiectione liberum, quam diu Christiana fides in terra seibatui, aeternaliter permaneat Hoc ipsumque omnibus successoribus nostris in nomine omnipotentis dei observare praecipimus Et si quis hoc scribere uoluerit, seruet eum Omnipotens Deus Si quis uero per tranciam potestatem fringere aut minuire uoluerit, sciat se maledictum esse a Christo, nisi emendare uoluerit deo et hominibus Manente hæc cartula in sua michilominus inmitate roborata His testibus consentientibus quorum hic illic nomina infrascripta sunt, et signo sanctae crucis corroborata

Ego Aethelred Rex confirmationem cum uexillo Sanctae Crucis Christi corroborari et subscripsi Ego Alhfrith Episcopus consensi et subscripsi Ego Heahmund Episcopus consensi et subscripsi Ego Wulfhere Dux consensi et subscripsi Ego Eadred Dux consensi et subscripsi Ego Aelstan Dux consensi et subscripsi Ego Ungstan Dux consensi et subscripsi Ego Aelfstan Dux consensi et subscripsi Ego Drihtuuald Dux consensi et subscripsi Ego Ecgbeahht minister consensi et subscripsi Ego Beorhtnoth minister consensi et subscripsi Ego Ordulf minister consensi et subscripsi Ego Aesca minister consensi et subscripsi

Actum est autem Anno ab Incarnatione Domini nostri Ihesu Christi DCCCLXVIII

§ 268. The following are given as specimens of the extent to which the language and the date may differ In that of Athelstan the language is mere Old English.

ÆELFRED, A D 871.* (No 301)

In Nomine Domini Ic Elfied Dux and Etheled Archebiscop & þo higen at Cistes cheriche habbez wise ared embe þet land at Chertham þet is þanne þet Elfied efter his dage hauez bequeþe þet land at Chertham in to þan higen to egne eyte an gef þat sy þet higen þas londas enye men unnen willen buten em seluen þanne sellen hi hit Elfhedes biennen ofer his meyn suthen suo hi willet an þo yrede þet he wiht hygen aiede suo on fye suo on ferme suo hwader he abidden mage and se archebiscop selht Elfhede þet land a Cromdune his dages to brukene and þanne Elfhedes uoisith bideþ and his biernes þos londas be þasne þanne begete hi hem land gef hi mage at swiche loueide suo þer þanne sy and at þan hygen And gef eni man agt opathe embe þet lande at Chertheham þanne haueþ Elfied yhalde herewynne hwer on eyhwet bi woide aurten is hwam hum self hit yþaunth to anwolde And þat wes on burg yred bruoie þan wyten þe hne names hier bineþen awritene synden Eþeled archebiscop

* Mr Kemble refers this to the end of the 12th century, looking upon it as a translation from some earlier A S original

Epelwald Dux Elfhed Dux Biornhelm Abot Eardwulf Abot Ceolmund Sywolf
Edmund & halle hyzen

AETHELRED OF WESSEX, A.D. 867-871 (No 302 *Obelized*)

Regnante imperpetuum Domino Nostro Ihesu Christo ! Ricende we dritte
Haelende Crist ich Atheldred mid Godes gne Westsaxne Kung und leue and
eþeafunghe mme þare soðeste wiotene Ich forguoc and sello for me selfne
mme saule to alcsnesse minne þam leuete and riueste alderman Ellstane
alchene idal landes in þare istowe þe is menned be Chiselburne tif hude . him
to habenne and to brukende on elche halwe þat is þanne þat it hie isen fic
of al ikenelricie and alder domeleie þinghe an iwtadenne an of elchene
þinghe butan fionde and angieldes And het it ahelehe fic þu swine habbe
suelcman suo alse ich it habbe gref donne hucman be segen þat he þis guoc
and sale reche oð manufelde wille iache him almiðta god alle goode here for
wolde and his igaste furch aguc þa ache reste in þam towaide huc If þat
ilunpe þat om man purch deules lore and for þeses middeldices idle þinghe on
onni idale ihitel oþer michel þis ibreke oþer iwanne wite he hime fiann alle
leaffulle mme þese iworlde asceaden and he des sel in domes deghe be foren
Criste rich ageldende bute he it are her on worlde mid rihte ibete

Dises landes freols was iwrten in þare stowe þat is inemned at Wudegate
beforen þese wetene þe here namen her beneþen ameikede standen Apeldred
1ex. Ealferð episcopus Heahmund episcopus, etc

WERFRITH (No 327 *Worcestershire*)

In Usse Dryhtnes Noman Haelendes Cristes ic Uuerfrið biscop mid alles ðæs
heoredes leafe on Weogornaceastie ge gunges ge aldres selle cynewið mme
megan ðeora hida lond on alhmunding tune ðæs fit hida ðe hugen me gebooc-
dan aer on ðeora monna dæg Nu gewiite ic hit eft huc mid huna leafe ðæt
ðeora hida lond on ðeora monna dæg and heo hæbbe ða wudu-iacddenne in
ðam wuda ðe ða ceoilas biucað and ec ic huc lete to ðæt ceoila gief to sun-
dian and elles ðæt tvega hida lond and ða ceoilas and se alhmunding snæð
here into preosda byrig ða hwile hit unagaen seo ond cynewið hit to nængum
oðrum men ne lete ða hwile hit unagaen se butun to huc beaina sumum swa
hweolcum swa heo ðonne wille gif heo hfigen gif heo ðonne ne hfigen lete
hit to sweolcum hire mega swelce hit hire to gearmigan wille ond ic Uuerfrið
Biscop biddu and halsigu* ðæt ðis ðeora hida lond and ec ðæt tvega ðonne hit
agaen seo ðæt hit se agefen into chife to ðam biscoprice butan eghweolcum
wiðerewide ond ec ic Uuerfrið Biscop and all hugen halsigað usse æfterfylgend
ðæt heora næng ðæt gefe gewonige aer hit swa agaen se swa hit on ðissum ge-
wrote stondeð and all hugen eodan to minum bure on weogorna ceastie and me
saldan heora hondsetene ðisse gearðnesse ðara noman her beneoðan awriten
stondað and heo hit hæbben eghwæs to freon butun agefen elce gear ðeo
mittan hwætes to ciricsceatte to chife

AETHELSTÁN. (No 359 *North Riding of Yorkshure Obelized*)

þat witen alle þat euer been,
þat þis charter heren and seen,
þat I þe king Adelstan
Has yaten and guen to sent Iohn
Of Beueilike, þat sai I yow,

* See No. 238 in p. 292.

ToI and theam, þat wit ye now,
 Sok and sake ouer al þat land
 þat es ginen into his hand,
 On euer ilke kinges dai,
 Be it all free þan and ay,
 Be it almousend, be all free
 Wit ilke man and eke wit meo.
 þat wil i be hna þat me scop
 Bot til an cicebiscop,
 And til þe seuen min-stre prestes
 þat serues God þei saint Iohn 1e-stes
 þat giue i God and sent Iohn
 Hei befor you euer ilkan
 All my heist eorn moldecl
 To uphald his min-stre wecll
 þa fourþene be heuen lunge
 Of ilka plough of estirring
 Ei it swa betid, oi swa gas,
 þat am man hei again taas
 Be he baion, be he eile,
 Clark, prest, parson, oi cherecl,
 Na be he ne þat ilk Gome
 I will forsaye þat he come
 (þat wit ye wecl oi and oi)
 Till saint Iohn mynstre dor,
 And þai i will (swo Crist me red)
 þat he bet his misded,
 Oi he be cused son on on
 Wit al þat seruis saint Iohn
 Yif hit swa betid and swa es,
 þat þe man in mansing es
 I sai yow ouer fourtu daghes,
 (Swilk þan be sain Iohn laghes)
 þat þe chapitel of Beueiþke
 Till þe scurif of Euerwike
 Send þau* writ son onan,
 þat þis mansedman be tan
 þe scuref þan say i ye,
 Witouten any wit one me
 Sal nimen him (swo Crist me red)
 And into my prison lede,
 And hald him (þat is my wilt)
 Til he bet his misgalt
 If men 1eises newe laghes
 In any oþer kinges daghes,
 Be þay fiomed, be þay yemed
 Wit yham of the mynstre demed,
 þe mercy of ye misdeed,
 Gif i saint Iohn, swo Crist me red,

* See § 290 1

Yif man be cadd of limes or hf
 Oi men chalenges land in staf
 Wit my bodlak, wit wit of ight,
 Y wil samt Iohn haue ye might
 þat man þar for noght fight in feeld,
 Nowþer wit staf no wit shoold
 Bot twelue men wil i þat it telle
 Swa sal it be swo heer ibelle
 And he þat him swo weine may
 Ouercomen be he euer and ay
 Als he in feld war ouercomen,
 þe clauantise of him be nounen
 þat yati God and saint Iohn
 Her befor iow and euer ilkon
 If man be founden slan idunkend,
 Sterued on saint Iohn iite, lus aghen men,
 Wiþouten swike lus aghen bailifs make ye sight,
 Nan oyer coronei haue þe might.
 Swa mikel fiedom grue i ye,
 Swa heit may thnk or eghe sec
 þat haue i þought and forbiseen,
 I will þat þei euci been
 Samening and mynstie hf
 Last follike witouten strif,
 God help alle þas ilk men
 þat helpes to þe þowen Amen

AETHELSTÁN (*No 360 North Riding of Yorkshire Obelized*)

Wyt all that es and es gan
 þat ik King Adelstan
 As gyuen als fíelich as I may
 And to þe capitell of seint Wilfrai,
 Of my free deuotion,
 þair pees at Rippon
 On ilke side þe kyike a mile,
 For all ill deedes and ylke agyle,
 And wiþin þair kuke yate
 At þe stan þat Griþstole hate;
 Wiþin þe kirke doie and þe quare
 þair haue pees for les and mare
 Ilkan of þes stedes sal haue pees
 Of fíodmortell and il deedes
 þat þair don is, tol, tem,
 With iren and with water deme,
 And þat þe land of seint Wilfrai
 Of alkyn geld fie sal be ay
 At na man at langes me to
 In þair Herpsac sal haue at do,
 And for ik will at þa be saue
 I will at þai alkyn freedom haue,

And in al þinges be als free
 As hert may thynke or ergh may se,
 At te power of a konge
 Masts make free any þynge
 And my seale haue I sett þerto.
 For I will at na man it undo

ÆDELSTÁN, April 23rd, A.D. 939 (No 1119 *Obelized*)

In Godes nanes! Ich Æðelstán, God gyuing, Kyng welding eal Bytome, mid alle míne wytene and alle Biscope of éán kinedóme of Engelonde, gelad by ðe Fierunge of ðe Hály Góste, grantye and confirmye by ðisse míne chartre for me and for ðe kingges of Engelonde ðæt comeð æfter me, éne and éuereich, tille Gode and santa Marian, and samte Michaela sainte Sampson and sainte Brianwaladre, xxi hýde londas æt Muleburne, mid éán ðæt ðeietó líð, and fif æt Wonlonde, and þeó atte Flómennouthe, atte yle éán Ye, tó on see and ón on londe, ðæt is tó leggende æt Oie, and þeó at Clyue mid éáne méde æt ðeietó líð, and þeó and ón half at Liscombe, and óa æt Burdaluoston, and ón at Litle Pulele, and fíue at Cattesstoke, and vi at Comptone, and tó at Wídecome, and vii at Osmynstone, and vii at Holewerðe, ðæt is alles seuene and sixty hýden intó Middeltone, and áne weie on Auene at Twyuhán, and al ðæt water binne stæðe of Waimouðe and half strym on éán Waimouðe out on see, and twelf acres tó ðan weie and éán weihrude, and þeó pegne on Suð-Sexan, and Salterne by weie, and xxx hýden on Sidemynstone tó ís-terland, and tó at Chelmyntone, and six at Hyllfelde, and x hýde at Eicecombe tó tymburlonde And ich wolle ðæt al ðis mýn almeslonde mid al éán ðæt ðeietó líð and fíeó beó in alle þynge and fíeó custumes, ðæt is for míne sáule helpe and for ðe helpe of here saulen ðæt tó fore me wére and after me comen schulle kynges of Engelonde, éan munster tofore gesed of Middeltone in ígte elene almesse wulle and grantye ðæt hit beón al só fíeó in alle þynge mid éán ðæt ðeietó líð in éche stéde in Englonde in mýne cynedóme al swá mýn ógen óie And ich stédeuastliche hote and belcóde in Gode almygtes hége name, fader and son and hóly góst, ðæt ðis mún wille and gífte and of ðis writ fastnyngge ungewemmed beó, and ungewered, and ungewendelich, ðe hwíle ðæt Christendóm dmeð in ðis gelonde Englschan Ome lóurd God almygtig and alle his hálgen al ðe yle hó só hit beó ðæt ðis mý dede in óðere wíse hit buturne óer gewanye, óðer hó ðæt éuere beó, be hey Iudan feyne Christes traytour on helle wytte pýnende and on echenysse

And ðæt ðis sond beó and stédeuast euere boutende, ich ðe foresedene kyng Æðelstán ðis gewritene bócleóf habbe gemarked mid Cristes hóly róde tó kne and mún ógen honde mid ðisse gewritnesse of alle míne gewytene ðæt heiafter gewriten beó gefunden, and mid míne biscopes

ÆLFGÁR'S WILL, about A.D. 958 (No 1222)

In Nomine Domini! Dis is Ælfgáres quide, ðæt is éist, ðæt ic an míne lóurd tuéne sweide fetelsade, an[d] tuéne bége áyðer of fífti mancusas goldes, and þe stédes, an[d] þe cheldes, an[d] þe speien And me kídde Deódréd biscop and Eádrick Alderman éa ic selde míne lóurd ðæt sweid ðæt Eádmund kung me selde on hund tuelftan mancusas goldes, and four pund silueres on éán fetels ðæt ic múnste ben míne quides wrde And ic néfre forwioth ne habbe on Godes wítnesse wyt míne lóurd boten ic só móte And ic an Æðel-

fléde míne douthel ðat lond at Cokfeld and at Dittone and ðat at Luenhara ouer míne day, and ðanne ouer úre alderne day ic an ðat lond at Cokfeld tó Bedríches worðe tó seint Eádmundes stowe And ic wille ðat Æðelfled nunc ouer hne dai ðe londes at Dittun into squilke hálegen stowe squilk hne ród-likes þunge for ure alder sóule, and ouer hne alder day ic an ðat lond at Lauenhám míne douthel childe, gif ðat God wille ðat heó ánu hauet, buten Æðelfled her wille him his humnes, and gif heó nón habbe, gange into Stoke for me aldre sóule And ic an ðat lond at Bubbingseine Æðelflede míne doughter, and after hne day mín óðer doughter hre day, and after here bóðere day míne doughter beine, gif heó bein habbe, and gif heó bein nón ne habbe, ðanne gó it into seinte Marie stowe at Beikinge, for ure alderne sóule And ic an ðat lond at Illeyge míne génger doughter hne day, and ouer hne day Beisnóð his day, if he leng hbbe ðanne heó, gif he bein habben ðanne an ic it hem, gif he nón ne habben ðanne an ic hit Æðelfled míne doughter ouer here day, and after hre day into Cristes kyke at Canterberu ðen hude tó bryce And ðe lon[d] at Colne and at Tygan ic an mín gungere doughter, and ouer hne day, gif heó bein habbe hne bein, and gif heó ne habbe bequeðe ic Beisnóðe hys dáy, and ouer his day into Stoke for úre aldre sóule And ic an ðat lond at Piltendone and ðat at Merseye into Stoke And ic an ðat Æðelfled buke ðe lond ðer whyle ðe hne lef beð one raðan heó ic on nre helde and on ðe red ðat heó dó ðan hude só wel só heó best may into Stoke for míne sóule and for úre aldre And ic an ðat lond at Grénestede into Stoke for míne sóule, and for Æðelwades, and for Wíswyðen, and ic Æðelfled ðere buce wile hne lif beð on ðe ród ðat heó dó for ðat sóule só wel só he best may Nu hus me God úðe and mín láneid And ic an ðat lond at Tidweldington Ælfwold ouer míne day, ðe he foringe ilke there ðen hnd at Paulas byri for úre aldre sóule And ic an ðat lond at Cathám Beisnóðen and míne gungere doughter here day, and after here day wende lond into Meresere Æðelfled míne doughter And ic an ðat wudelond at Asfeldun tó Stoke alsó Ayllal self it hér bouchte And ic [an] emín móder ðat londat Ryssebiók, gif heó leng hnd ðan ic, ðanne after únkei bóðer day ic an it Wynelme, gif heó Æðelfled on íchte hnrð And ic wille bidden sulk lóuerd só ðanne beóð for Godes lóuen and for alle huse hálegen, weiken mín bein ðat worken, ðat he nefre ne muge forwerken míne qude ðe ic for míne sóule queden habbe. And gif hit wo áwende, habbe him wíð God gemene and wíð ðe hólí staus ðe ic it tó becuðen habbe, ðat he nefre ne béte búten on helle wyte so ðis qude áwende, bóten ic meseluen wende ér mín endinge And ic Æðelgár an án híde lond ðes ðe Æulf hauede be hundtueli acien áteo só he wille.

§ 269. The second of the pair which follows is a late translation of the first, and it gives us a notable amount of difference. The time, however, by which it was brought about it does *not* give. What is the *real* date of the second? What is the evidence that the first is as old as A.D. 958?

ÆDELWEARD, A.D. 958 (No 477)

Dis is Æselwyrðas ewide mid gepæhte Oðan Ærcebiſcopas and ðæs luoredas æt Cristes crican. ðæt is ðonne ðæt Æselwyrd buce ðæs landas

on Geocham hus dæg on freodome be Godes leafe and be ðæs Ærceliscopes and be ðæs heoredas, ðonne yftaet hus dæge Eadric, gif he libbe, hus dæg, wið ðon gofole ðe hit geowæden is, ðæt sint v pund and ælce gære ane dægfeorme nuhowum, ðæt is ðonne xl sestas ealað lx hlāfa, wefer and flicce, and an huses leuw, ii cesas, iii hænfuglas, and v pænningas to befe and ðis sio gelæst to Sancte Michaelæs tide, and bið he ælces wites wyðe, and gif hwile towyht man huwan gesæce bið se ðingad swa hit medlic sið be ðæs geltes mese. Gif hit ðonne gebærige ðæt Æðelwyrd læng libbe ðonne Eadric, ðonne fo Æðelgyfu to, wið ðan ilean gofole ðe hit hier beutan geowæden is, hne dæg. Gif hit ðonne gebeuge ðæt Æðelwyrd læng libbe ðonne Eadric oððe Æðelgyfu and he ða unætnessa abidan scel, agefe man land in yfter his dæge in mid him selfum for hne and forðam ðe him land fram com.

Disæs is Oda ærceliscop gewita and Byhtcne mæssepreost Cænwig mæssepreost Wealdied mæssepreost Sigetieð diaconus Oswald diaconus Fieðegod diaconus Sigetied diaconus Heard diaconus Sued preost Byhtmund Eadsige Eadelm Byhtsige Æðelm Byhtsige Byhtwig Liófic Sielm Wulfied Cæmic Eadweald.

Disæs wes gewita Eadelm abbod æt sancte Augustine and Byhtsige diaconus Eolebyht mæssepreost Rodin mæssepreost Bahtiam mæssepreost Beornmund preost and ða iii Ælstanas Æðelweald Eadmund Wenelm Cynsige Eadric Liofing Eadsige Wulfelm Sigetieð Liófic Lioftan Eadstán Eádmund stán Cynnges þegen Bvht-ric Wiltgár Wulfstan and ða iii geferscipas mnan buhwara and utan buhwara and micle mættan.

[Deos is] seó geiednæs ðe Eadric hæfð wið ðane hneðe to Cristes crican, ðæt is ðonne ðæt Eadric gesealde ðam hneðe to geisenum v pund, twá ðæm ældæstum and ðreo eallum hneðe, an ðæt geiáð ðæt he hebbe land mid fullre unnan ælde and gegete mid eallan ðan netwyðan þingum, lessan and maran de to ðæm lande belumppað unbespicaen wið æghwylcne lifes man.

ÆDELWEARD (No 478.)

Dis is Æpelwines quyde mid Odes Aichebiscopes and þe hires at Cristes-cheriche yrede þet is þanne þet Æpelwud bruke þas londes on Ycham hus day on uredome be godes ylaue and by þes aichebiscopes and by þes lindes þanne hefter hus dæge Eadrich gef he libbe hit bruke his day wiht þen gauele þe hit ycueþen is þet sind v pund and eche gere enne dey ferne into þan lugen þet hus þanne xl sestres eleþ lx lous wepes and flihtthe, and ane wope-shap . ii cheses . iii henfugeles and v paneges to beþe and þis by ylest to seyntes Michelestide and by he eches wites worpe and gef hwilche woworpe man þa hygen hit ofsake be se þingad suo hit meþlic sy by þes geltes meþe. Gef hit þanne yberege þet Æpelwud leng libbe þanne Eadrich þanne fo Æpelgafe to wiht þan ylcce gauele þe hne buuem yqueþen is hne dey gef hit þanne yhyrige þet Æpelwyrd leng libbe þanne Eadrich ofer Æpelgine and he þo unnet-nesse ybyde þanne ageue he land and boc efter hus dæge in mid him seluen uor hne and for þo þe him land uam com . þises is Ode Aichebiscop ywyttnesse and Bvgtliere messepreost and þo þri yuecshipes binne burg an bute þet is al se hne a Cristescheriche and Seynt Austynes and at Seynt Gregones and mania oþre yhodede and haunode of þinne burg and bute.

After Alfred we have scarcely even an approximate date until we reach the reign of Ethelred—under which come the important writings of Ælfric. In these we have the typical Anglo-Saxon, which is connected with what precedes rather than with what follows. Whether, however, the literary language of this time be founded upon that of Alfred and (so being founded) is older than the vernacular, or whether the language of Alfred be adapted by transcribers to that of Ælfric, or, finally, whether the language was not actually stationary, so that the existing copies of both Ælfric or Alfred represent the spoken tongue, is more than I can say.

The following charters are under Harold Harefoot's reign, the rest from that of Edward the Confessor. They have, one and all, a modern character. The varieties in the orthography, for even the older ones, are considerable. Of these we may safely say that—

Forms like *gewrite* are older than forms like *gewritæ*,

Forms like *heora* are older than forms like *heore*;

Forms like *scyre* are older than forms like *shire*, or *sire*,

Forms like *pegenas* are older than forms like *peines*.

The form *cyninge* and *cyning* is older than *cynge* or *cyn*: the form *cyn*g being older than *kyng*. In like manner *cythe* (= *notify*) is older than *kythe*.

That statements like these may be generalized, and that it may be laid down that the use of *c* is older than of *k*, and the use of *e* final older than that of *æ*, is nothing more than what we expect *a priori*. Still, great caution is required in the induction. In one of the documents (No. 896) as far, at least, as the printed text is concerned, we have the three forms *cyninge*, *cyn*g, and *kynges*.

Another of these small tests is to be found in the form *you*, = *vobis* or *vos*. It is *eow*, *eou*, *gou*, *ihu*, &c. How far these, and the like of them, are matters of date or matters of dialect is another question.

§ 270.

HAROLD HARAÑFOT, 1038 (No. 758)

Her kyþ on þison gewrite þæt Harold King let be ridan Sandwic of Cristes cyrcean him sylfan to handa and hæfde hit him wel neh twelf monað and tvegen hæringe timan swa þeah fullce eall oncean Godes willan and agen ealia þara Halgena þe restað innon Cristes cyrcean swa swa hit him syððan sorhlice þerrefter agode and amanc þisan siðe wearð ælfstan Abbud æt Sancte A and begeat mid his smeh wrencan and mid his golde and scolhe eall dýrnunga æt steorran þe þa was þæs Kinges rædesmann þæt him gewearð se

þridda þeng of þære tolne on Sandwic þa geærðde Eadsige Arcebisceop þa he þis wiste and call se hured æt Cistes cyrcan betweenan heom þæt man sende ælfgar munuc of Cistes cyrcan to harolde kunge and wæs se King þa þunnan Oxanaforde swyþe geseoled swa þæt he læg on wenæ his lifes þa wæs lyfinge bisceop of Defenansene mid þam Kinge and þancied munuc mid him þa com Cistes cyrcan sand to þam Bisceop and he forð þa to þam Kinge and Ælfgar munuc mid him and Osweld æt heigeides ham and þancied and sædon þam Kinge þæt he hæfde swyðe agylt wið Crist þæt he æfne sceolde niman æng þing of Cistes cyrcan þe his foragengecon dydon þider inn sædon þam kunge þa embe Sandwic þæt hit wæs him to handa geiriden . þa læg se King and aswearode call mid þære sage . and swor syþþan under God Ælmihtine and under ealle Halgan þu to þæt hit næfne næs na his ræd na his dæd þæt man sceolde æfne Sandwic don ut of Cistes cyrcan þa wæs soðlice gesyne þæt hit wæs oðra manna gefeaht næs na Haroldes Kinges and soðlice Ælstanes Abbodes iæd wæs mid þam mannan þe hit of Cistes cyrcan utgeærðdon þa sende Harold King Ælfgar munuc agen to þam Arcebisceop Eadsige and to eallon Cistes cyrcan munecan and grette hig ealle Godes gretunge and his and het þæt hig sceoldan habban Sandwic into Cistes cyrcan swa full and swa forð swa hig hit æfne hæfdon on æmes Kinges dæge ge on gafole ge on sticame ge on strande ge on witun ge on eallon þam þungan þe hit æfne æng kung fyrmost hæfde æt foran him þa Ælstan Abbud þis ofaxode þa com he to Eadsige Arcebisceop and bæd hine fulltunes to þam lunde embe þone þriddan þeng and hi begen þa to eallon gebroðran and bædon þone hured þæt ælstan abbud moste beon þæs þriddan þenges wurðe of þære tolne and gylan þam hured e x pund ac hy forwyndon heom ealle togædere endemes þæt he hit na sceolde næfre gebidan and wæs þeah Eadsige Arcebisceop swiðor his fullum þone þæs lundes and þa he ne mihte na forð her mid þa gyrinde he þæt he moste macian fornan gen mildryþe æker ænne lwerf wið þone wodan to wernanne ac eall se hured him forwynde þæs forð fît mid ealle and se arcebisceop eadsige let hit call to heora agene iæde þa gewearð se abbud ælstan æt mid meolan fulltune and let delfon æt Hyppes fleote an mycel gedelf . and wolde þæt serp ryme sceolde þærinne hegean eall swa hig dydon on sandwic ac him na speow nan þinge færon for þam he swingð eall on idel þe swincð ongean cistes willan and se abbud let hit eall þus and se hured fengc to heora agenan on godes gewitnisse and Sancta Marian and ealra þara Halgena þe restað innan Cistes cyrcan and æt Sancte Augustine þis is eall soð gelyfe se þe wylle na gebad Ælstan Abbud næfre on nanan oþre wisan þone þriddan þeng of Sandwic Godes bletsung si mid us eallon a on eenysse. Amen

ÆGELRIC, 1044. (No 773)

Her swutelæð on þisum gewite embe þa forewyrd þe Ægelric woihte wið Eadsige Arcebisceop æt þam lande æt Ceit þe Ceolnoð Arcebisceop gebohte æt hæleþan þam þegene mid his agenan secatte and Aþelnf Cing hit gebocode Ceolnoð Arcebisceope on ece yrfe . þis synd þænne þa forewyrd þæt Ægelric hæbbe þæt land æt ceit his dæg and æfter his dæge ga þænne þæt land þam Arcebisceope Eadsige on hand swa gegodod swa heom þam geisan mage and syððan heora begra dæg agan si Ægelrices and þæs Arcebiscopes Eadsiges þænne ga þis foresprecene land into Cistes Cyrcan mid mote and mid mannan eal swa hit stande for Ægelrices sawle and for Eadsiges Arcebiscopes þam godes feowan to forste and to secude þe þærinne godes lof dæogan sceolan

dæges and nihtas and ægelic gif þa landboc þe þæto gebyreð on his life criste and þam hude him to ecere ælnessan and bruce ægelic and esbeain his sunu þara oðra landa heora twægria dæg to pam ilcan forewyrdan þe ægelnoð arcebiscop and ægelic ær geworhtan þæt is Stutung and Meletun and se haga binnan port þe Ægelic hunsylfan getimbod hæfde and æfter heora twægria dæge fo se Aicebiscop Eadsige þæto gyf he leng libbe þænne hi oððe loc hwa his æfter genega þænne beo butan sum heora freonda þa land fursor on fæs Aicebiscopes gemede ofgan mage to rihtan galole oððe to oþran forewyrdan swa hit man þænne findan mage wið þone Aicebiscop þe þænne libbe and þises is to gewitnesse Eadweard Cynege and Ælfgyfu seo Hlafdige and Ælfwine Biscop and Stigand Biscop and Godwine Biscop and Godric Decanus and ealse hued æt Cristes cyrcean and Wulfic Abbud and eal se hued æt Sancte Augustine and Ælfwine Abbud and Siweard Abbud and Wulfnoð Abbud and Godwine Eoil and Leofric Eoil and Atsum Roda and Ælfstan steallere and Eadmaer æt Buiham and Godric æt Bunnan and Ælfwine se reada and mæniġ man þæto cacan ge gehadude ge læwede binnan bugan and butan and gif æniġ man on uferan dagan gehadud oððe læwede þisne cwyde wille awendan awende hune god ælmihtig hradlice of þisan lænan life into helle wite and þær a wurige mid eallan þam deoflan þe seo lædhce wurung betacht is buton he þe deoppor hit gebete ær his ende wæð Crist sylfne and wæð þone hued Nu synd þissa gewrita þreo an is innan Cristes cyrcean . and oþer æt saucte augustine and þæt þiude hæfð Ægelic mid hunsylfan

The same, in a later form :—

Hyre swotelez on æisen ywite embe ðo forewerde ðe Æðelich wiopte wyð Eaðsige archebiscop at ðan londe at Cherth ðe Chelnoð archebiscop bogte at Helefen ðan þegne mid his oġene sheatte and Æðeluf kyng hit ybokede Ceolnoð archebiscoppe on eche yre Ðis sind ðanne ðe forewerde ðet Æðelich habbe ðat lond æt Cherth his dey, and æfter his dæge go ðet land ðan archebiscoppe Eaðsige an hand swó yġóded swó hem þam yrisen mage, an siððen hirc beyre dei áġon sí Æðeliches and ðas archebiscopes Eaðsides, ðanne go ðis uoiespekene land into Cristes cheurche mid mete and mid mannen alsġo hit stondeð for Æðelices sáule and for Eaðelices archebiscoppes ðan góde þeuwen to uostre and to sciude ðe ðeámne Godes lof þeungon shulle dages and niġtes, and Æðelich gif ðe landboc ðe ðeátó yberð on his lyue Criste and ðan hude him to echcher elmesse, and bruke Æðelich and Esbaan his sune ðære oðre londe hære tuérye dey to ðan ilcke uorewerde ðe Æðelnoð archebiscop and Æðelich ei ywroġten, ðat is Stutinge and Meletune and se hæðe binne port ðe Æðelich himself yymbied hauede, and æfter hne twéyre dæge uo se archebiscop Eaðsige ðeátó gef he leng libbe ðanne hi oðer hwó is æfter ġniġle ðanne by, búte sum of hyre fiende ðet lond furðer on ðas archebiscoppes ymde ofġon mage to riġten galole, oðer to oðre uorewerde swó hit man ðanne unden mage wæð ðane archebiscop ðet ðanne libbe And þisses is to ywriðnesse, Eaðward king, and Ælfigne si léuedi, and Ælfwine Biscop, and Stigand Biscop, and Godwine Biscop and Godrich decan, and al se hued æt Cristes cheurche and Wolfric abot, and al se hyrd æt seynt Austines, and manie abottes and hierles, and manie oðre men yhodede an[d] hawede binne burg and búte And gef éni man on ure dagan yhodet oðer hawet ðisne quyde wille [awendan], áwende hune God ælmiġta ráðlice of ðise leue into helle wite, and ðe á womie mid alle ðan deulen ðei si lóðliche wonunge is bitagt, búte he ðe dipper hit ybete

ei his ende wæs Crist selfne and wad ðare land. Nū sind riȝe yrite þis, on is at Cristes cherche, ðer at seynt Austine, and ðet þiudde aneðe Æðelich mid hunsclue

BRIHTMÆR, 1053 (No 799)

Hȝer swotelon on ðisen yrite embe ðo uoieweide ðe Bismær at Gerscheiche mogte wƿs Stigant Archibiscop, and wƿs Godrich ðane den, and wƿs alle ðan hyied at Cristes cherche at Cantuarbery, ðet is ðanne ðet he uðe Criste into Cristes cherche dane hómstal ðet he on set, and alie halegene cherche efter his dage and efter Eadgefan his ybedden and efter his childrene dage Eadmæres and Æðelwynes, swa hi hit alðer best ygódeden uoi hre sáulc alednesse, and swó ðet ge hyied sholde wyten ðet se þendóm ne áðcswen ðe into ðare cherche belmpe hene ne atfalle al be ðán ðe si cherche were ygoded. Hȝer to byeð ywáðnesse Lyfestán portyeue and biscop, and Eylwyne stúkehære, and manie oðre ðas þeyne binne burg and bute

EÁDWEARD (No 827 *Hertfordshire*)

Eadward King grét Eadnóð Biscop and Beoin Eoill and alle mine þegnes on Hertfordeshe fiendlice, and ic kýðe eow ðat ic habbe gifen Crist and samte Petie into Westmunstre ðat land at Aldenham, mid sace and mid sócne, mid toll and mid teám, and infangeneðef. swa full and swa foðr swa Sihtic eoill of ðan munstre þeowlic it heold and atfoien witisne mid halia tünge Ælfíce ðan abbod and ðan gebiððaren upp betuhte, and swá swa hit stod Oidbiht abbod on hande into ðan munstre behoue and be Kenwlfes kinges dagon, and swa swá Eadgar king on his writ ðiderin it gefestue. And ic nelle naðeswon gedafian ðat ðer any man any onsting ðanotet habbe on anyg þegan oððe on any tunen buton se abbod and ða monecas to samte Peties neóðe. God eow gehelde and samte Peties holde. Amen

EÁDWEARD, 1066 (No 828 *Kent*)

Eadward King gret Eadsí Archiscop and Godwune Biscop on Rowcestre and Leofwme coill on Kente and Esgar stallere and Robeid Wymaiche sune stallere and alle mine þegnes on Kente fiendlic. Ic cýðe eow ðat ic wille ðat ðat cotlif Leosne ðe Atsere ahte and bequeð Crist and samte Petie into Westmunstre liggemon ðiderinne to ðera monece foden mid allen ðare þngen ðat ðar to heid on wóde and on fælde, on made and on yde and watere, and on alle oðere þnge scotúé and gaulfié, on schíe and on hundiede, swá full fíe and swá foðr swa he it samte Petie bequað and ic ðes fullice geuðe. And ic nelle naðeswon geðafian ðat ðer any man any onsting habbe on any þngun oððe on any tȝmen buton se abbod and ða gebiððere to ðas munstres mæwr-ðhere þearfe. And ic an ðat samte Petre habbe ofer ðan sace and sócne, toll and teám, infangeneðef and alle oðere rihte ða to me belmpað. God eow gehelde and samte Peties holde. Amen

EÁDWEARD (No 832 *Suffolk*)

Eadward Kyng grét Gunketel Biscop, and Ælfwne, and Ælfíce, and alle mine þegnes on Suðole fiendlico, and ic kíðe ihu ðat ic wille ðat ðat lond at Mildenhale, and ða mæud half hundred sócne into Dmghowe lige into sent Eádmunde mid sake and mid sokne, só ful and só foðe só it mine moder on hande istod, and ic nelle þafien ðat hom any man ábrede any ðere þnge ðat ic hem her uðe.

EÁDWEARD (No 834 *Somerset*)

Eadward Kynge grét Harold Eorl, and Ægelnoð Abbod, and Godwyn schéirue, and alle mýnes þægenes on Somerset fréondlich, and ich eucē how ðat ich wolle ðat Gýso bisschop weie now liss lond alsó his foigenge aforeu hym éi dude, and ich nelle suððen ðat man hym ény unlawe beóde.

EÁDWEARD (No 838 *Somerset*)

Eadward King grét Harold Eorl, and Aynnoð Abbot, and Godwine, and calle mine þemes on Sumerseten fréndliche, ich queðc eou ðæt ich wille ðæt Gyse iscop beó ðisses biscopríches wiðe heerinne mid eou And álch ðálc þinge ðe ðas ðai mid ichte togebyrað himnan poite and butan, mid saca and mid sócna, swó uol and swó uorð swó hit em biscôp him touoren formest haucð on ealle þing And ich bidde eou alle ðæt ge him beón on fultome Cristendóm tospiekene loc whai hit þaif sý and eower fultumes beðurfe cal swó ich getrowwen ðo eow habben ðat ge him on fultume beon willen And gif what sý mid unlage out of ðán biscopríche geydon, sý hit londe óðer án óðer þinge ðái fulstan him uor minan luuen ðæt hit in ongeyn cume swó swó ge for Gode witen ðat hat richt sý God éu ealle gehealde

The same in Latin

Eadwardus Rex Haroldo comiti, Aynodo Abbati, Godwino, et omnibus balliuis suis Sumersetae, salutem! Significamus uobis nos uelle quod episcopus Gýso episcopatum apud uos possideat cum omnibus dictum episcopatum in uillis et extra de iure contingentibus, cum saca et socna, adeo plene et libere per omnia sicut ullus episcoporum praedecessorum suorum unquam habebat Rogamus etiam uos ut coadiutores ipsius esse uehtis ad fidem praedicandam et claustranantem sustinendam pro loca et tempore, sicut de uobis fideliter confidimus uos uelle id ipsum Et si quid de dicto episcopatu siue in terris siue in aliis rebus contra iustitiam fuerit sublatum, adiunctis eum pro amore nostro ad restitutionem prout iustum fuerit habendam Conseruet uos dominus

EÁDWEARD (No 839 *Somerset*)

Eadward King grét Harold Eorl, and Toud, minne schýfe icsen, and alle mine þemes inne Somersæten fréndliche, and ich keðc cū ðæt Ælfréd hauet yseld Gýse biscop his land at Hlytton sacleás and clæne tóforen me siluen æt Peddiedan, on mine iwtmesse and on Eáduðe mine ibidden and on Haroldes æiles and on manegra óðra manna ée mid me ðæ'r wáren Nú wil ich ðæt se biscop beó ðás londes worðe into his biscopríche ðe he under honde hauet, and álch ðære þinge ðás ðe ðái tó mid ichte gebyrað, mid saca and mid sócna, swó ful and swó furð swó hit æ'nige biscoppe formest on honde stódon ællen þingan And gif ðái sý ánni þing out gedón ðás ðe ðás mittþyrð ich beóde ðat man hit lete in ongean comen, ðæt nón óðer ne sý

The same in Latin

Eadwardus Rex Haroldo Comiti, Toud Vicecomiti, et omnibus balliuis suis Sumersetae, salutem! Sciatis quod Ælmedus uendidit Gýsoni episcopo terram suam de Lutton pacifice et quete, teste meipso coram nobis apud Perret, et testibus Eadriða coniuge nostra, Haroldo comite, et multis aliis qui una nobis-

cum illic aderant Uolumus quoque quod idem episcopus terram illam cum omnibus pertinentiis habeat cum episcopatu quem possidet, et saca et socna ita plene sicut unquam aliquis episcoporum praedecessorum suorum in omnibus habuit Et si quid inde contra iustitiam fuerit sublatum, rogamus ut reuertetur, nec aliter fiat

EÁÐWEARD (No. 867. *Herefordshire*)

Eadward Kyng giet Ælhed Emil, and Harald Emil, and alle his undurlynges in Herefordeshire fiendliche, and I do gowe to understonden þat I wolle þat ðe prestes in Herefoide at seint Æðelbert minstre þat ðey haue euerie soke and sake ouere alle heore men and alle heore londes wrytne boughe and wíðoute, so fulle and so forð so ðey foimest hadde ynnre alle þynges; and ic he bidde yowe alle þat ye ben to hem fauerable and helpynge ouere alle, wher' þat ðey haue to doone for Goddes loue and for myne

Rubric Haec est translatio cartae Regis Eadwardi in lingua Saxonica translata in linguam Anglicanam de diuersis priuilegiis et libertatibus ecclesiasticis cathedralis Herefordensis per praefatum regem concessis, scilicet de socka et sacka, cuius sigillum coopeitum est cum panno sericeo diuersi coloris Et haec est scriptura sigilli sancti Eadwardi. Sigillum Eadwardi Anglorum Basiley'

The same in Latin

Eadwardus Rex saluto Ealdredum Episcopum, et Haroldum Comitem, et omnes meos ministros in Herefordensi comitatu amicaliter, et ego notifico uobis quod ego uolo quod presbyteri Herefordenses apud sancti Æðelberti monasterium quod ipsi sunt de eorum sacra et eorum socia liberi super eorum terras et supra eorum homines, infra burgum et extra, tam plene et tam plane sicut ipsi prius habuerunt in omnibus rebus Et ego praecipio uobis omnibus quod uos sitis eis in adiutorium ubicunque sicubi ipsi depauperantur pro Dei amore et pro meo

EÁÐWEARD (No. 868. *East Anglia*)

Eadward King giet Ælfric Biscop, and alle mine þeynes on Norfolk and on Suffole fiendlike, and ic kisse ihu þat ic wille þat Uu abbot be ðes minstres wíde at seynt Eáðmundes bur, and alle þinge ðe ðe to bueð on lande and on sake and on sokne and on alle þinge, só ful and so forð só it fimest tider mine lay, and ic wille þat se freols stonde into þat minstre unawent ðe Cnut king tiderinne úðe, and siðen Haidenut kyng mine broðer, and ic nelle þat efie áu bisscop áu þing him ðe on á áteo

The next is decidedly modern.

EÁÐWEARD (No. 899)

Ich Edouard Kinge haue geuen
Of my forreste the keepinge
Of the hundied of Chelmar and dansinge
To Randolfe Peperkinge and to his kning
With harte and hunde dooe and bokke
Hare and fox Catt and Brooke
Wylde foule with his flocke
Patriarch fesaunt hen and fesant cooke
With grene and wyld stob and stock

To kepen and to yemen by all her might
 Both by daie and eke by night
 And houndes for to houlde
 Gode and swyfte and bolde
 Foure grey houndes and vi. raches
 For hare and loxe and wild catter
 And therof I make him my book
 Wittnes the buss-hop Wolston
 And book ylered many one
 And Sweyne of Essex our brother
 And lekcn to him many other
 And our Steward Howelyn
 That besought mee for him

EÁDWEARD (No 904)

Eadwardus Rex Wlfrio episcopo, Tosti comiti, Normanno uaccocomiti, et omnibus fidelibus suis et ministris, clericis et laicis, de comitatu Hamptoniae salutem! Notum uobis facio quod Ælfwinus abbas de Ramesia et Leofricus abbas de Bugo notificauerunt mihi pactionem et commutationem quam habita colloctione inter se fecerunt. Uolo itaque ut uos intelligatis quod Ælfwinus abbas de Ramesia hoc modo accepit de Leofrico abbate Bugi nouem uingatas terriae apud Lodington de soca sancti Petri nominatum, scilicet ludam Huntingi, duas uingatas Godrici Dam, uingatam Biandi, uingatam Leofgari et uingatam Ælfwini nigrī, in plenam commutationem contra omnes homines nunc et perpetuo liberas et quietas. Et pro his dedit praetato abbati de Buch totam terram quam sanctus Benedictus habuit apud Marham liberam ab omni calumnia et quietam in plenam commutationem. Ipse misuper abbas et fratres Ramesienses singulis annis dabunt de charitate abbati et fratribus Bugi quatuor milia angularum in quadagesima sub tali uidelicet conditione quod abbas et fratres de Ramesia habebunt in territorio sancti Petri de Buch quantum sibi opus fuerit de lapidibus quadratilibus apud Beanech et de petris muralibus apud Buch in plena cambitione. erunt quoque omni tempore liberi a teloni et omnium exactionum uexatione per aquam et per terram. Notificauerunt quoque mihi quod haec compositio facta fuit inter eos sub testimonio Leofsi abbatis de Ely et Wlfgeti abbatis Croilandae et eorum qui cum ipsis praesentes affuerunt. Itaque uolo nos scire quod Ælfwinus abbas ita mecum locutus est et tantum mihi de suo dedit quod ego hanc conuentionem concessi, et uolo ut firmiter stet semper sicut inter se prollocuti sunt ad laudem et honorem dei et sanctae Mariae sanctique Benedicti tam moderno tempore quam futuro. Mando igitur et praecipio ut nullus omnino nec clericus nec laicus hanc commutationem et pactionem infringere audeat. Prohibeo quoque super plenam satisfactionem meam ne ullus homo tam audax sit ut aliquod grauamen aut iniuriam inferat hominibus sancti Benedicti neque rebus eorum, sed pacem dei et meam habeant ipsi et omnia quae ipsorum sunt aut erunt ubique in aqua et terra. Mando praeterea et praecipio per hoc scriptum meum ut terminum et metas in Kinges delte ita permaneant sicut abbas Ælfwinus Ramesiae eas diuisionauit contra Siwardum abbatem Doineiensem sub testimonio Leofsi abbatis de Ely et Leofrici abbatis de Buch et Wlfgeti Abbatis Croilandae et eorum qui cum ipsis placito interfuerunt, ex parte scilicet orientali ipsius nauigi uel ladue usque ad locum qui dicitur Gangestede, et exinde in partem occidentalem ab Hundeslake usque ad Wenlesmere et medietas de Kanhereholt. Quicumque

eigo hanc conuentionem eorum in aliqua re temerare uel immuare prae-
sumpserit separatus sit ille a gaudio coelesti, nisi antequam hic moriens
recedat, delictum suum congrue emendauerit Amen Hæc carta facta fuit
apud Westminster in festo sancti Petri, teste Stigando archiepiscopo, Eadwino
abbate Haroldo comite, Esgaro staliere, et Hugelino cubiculario

Eádwird kmg giet wcl Wulfwi biscop, and Tostu coil, and Norðman shíne-
fen, and al his witen and al his holden in Hámtonschíre háled and leáwed
fiendlíke, and ik kíðhen eów ðæt Ælfwyn abbot of Rameseire and Leófic
abbot of Bugh habben me gebid of ðæt whaife and of ðæt foreward ðæt he
habben gespekin and gedón hem bitwene, ðæt ik wille ðæt ghe understanden
ðæt Ælfwyne abbot of Rameseire on ðis wise haued gewharied at Leófic abbot
of Bugh ix gheide landes at Ludington of sent Petres sókne lande of
Bugh, Huntínges híde by name, and Godefriches twá gheide ðe Denske, and
Biandes gheide, and Leófgátes gheide, and Ælfwynes gheide ðe blake, sker
and sakles tó ful whaif wíð éuerik man, áa dagh and after dagh and haued
ghruen him ðes fore ðæt land at Márhám al ðæt seynt Benet ðei aght sker and
sakles wíð éuerik man tó ful whaif, and tó eken ðis ðe abbot and ðe bróðern of
Rameseire shulne ghruen ilke ghei foure þousend eol in lenton tó carite tó ðe
abbot and ðe bróðern intó Burg, to éáne forwart ðæt ðe abbot and ðe bróðern of
Rameseire shulén habben of sent Petres landeac weic stán at Bernak and wal
stán at Bugh als mikel suuá hem byhoued tó ful forward sker and sakles wíð
tol and wíð al þing bi watie and by lande intó Rameseire áuere máre, and he
habben me gekíð ðæt ðis forward was makod on Leófis abbotes wítnesse of
Ely and Wlfgetes abbotes of Ciuland and of ðes men ðæt mid hem wáren Nu
kíðen ik wou ðæt Ælfwyn abbot haued swá wíð me spoken and of his me
ghruen ðæt ik habbe ðis ilk forward íghetud, and ik wil ðæt ik stande alsuá he
hit gespeken habbet God tó loue and samte Marie and saint Benedictus áuere
máre, wíð boiene and wíð unborene And ik háte and beóde ðæt nó man ne
wíðe swá doeriste ne suuá dusty ðæt ðis ilk whaif and ðis ilk forward bieke,
háled ne leáwed, and ik forbeóde bi fulle wíte ðæt nó man ne wíð swá dusty
ðæt sent Benetes meime ne hei þing náwhér ne derien, ac Godes gríð and
mín habben heó and hce þing bi watie and by land. And ik háte and beóde
mid ðis ilk wírt ðæt ðæt ilk meik and mére after Cnoutes delfe kynges stande
alsuá Ælfwine abbot of Rameseire it bitolde wíð Siward abbot ðeirne al bi
Gangestóde bi ðe ést half ðe delf and ðe west half bi Hinde lake swá onan tó
Wendlesmáre and half Raðeresholt intó Rameseire on Leófis abbotes wítnes-
se of Ely, and on Leófis abbots of Bugh, and Wlfgetes abbot of Ciuland,
and éáne mon cet hem mid weren And if áni man ðis ilk forward mid áni
þing bieke and áwansige só be heó sundied fram heuencríkes merðen, biten
he hit ibete áa he heðen wende Amen ðis wírt was makod at Westmínstie
on sent Petres masdai on Stígandes wítnesse eicebiscop, and Eádwines
abbot, and Haroldes coiles, and Esgátes staliere, and Hugelinos bouðeimes

Istis terminis praefati monasterii iura encumenceta clarescunt Limites
terrarum de Winchendon This beth the x hude londe mere into Winchendon.
Erest of Ashulfes well into Beudyke, of the dyke on Hundede tiwe, of
the tiwe in twam more, of the more into the heuелonde, of the heuелonde
into twam well ȝyðthe, of the rythie into Bichenbroke, of that broke into
Tame-streame, andlange Tame-streame to Ebbeslade, of the slade to Meirewell,
fro Meirewell to Rugslawe, fro the lawe to the foule putte, fro the putte to
Rusbroke, fro Rusbroke to Wottesbroke, fro Wottesbroke into Ashulfes well.

De Wihthull Thare beth ri hude londcymere into Wihthull That is fro
 old Hensslade ofie the clift into stony londy wey, fro the wey into the long
 lowe, fro the lowe into the Port-stiete, fro the stiete into Chawewell, so alth
 stiem till it shutt eft into Hensslade De Bolles Couele, et Hedyndon
 Thare beth hude londcymere into Couelee Fro Charwell bugge andlong the
 stieme on that rihe . ling croft, endloug rihtes estward to that
 cometh to other shet up norward to the furlonges heued, fro the haueid
 estward into Merehutte, fro the huthe into the bio .
 into Deneacie, fro the acre into the oekmere, fro that mere . fro
 Restell into bieke, fro the bieke into Charwell de Cudeslawe
 Thare beth ri hydelondymere into Cudeslawe Erest of Portstiete into Tull-
 welle, fro the welle into rihe, fro to Byshopes more, fro the
 more into Wyneleslade into the slade into Wyneles hull, fro the
 hulle on hyme De L ri S Fideswide This priuilege was
 idith in Hedington myn owne mynster in Oxenford There sent
 Fideswide alle that fiedome that any rie mynstre felubost
 mid sake and mid socna, mid tol and mid teme, and with of
 Hedington, and of all the londe that theto be and in felde and alle
 other thinge and ryth that y belyueth and byd us for quike and dede,
 and alle other alle other bennyfeyt, and alle other thunge that ther
 Scripta fuit haec scedula iussu praefati regis in ulla regia.
 quae . appellatur, die octau arum beati Andrae apostoli huius consen-
 tentibus p qui subtus notati uidentur

§ 271. Here end the extracts, for the reign of Edward the Confessor, of which it may be said that the date gives us a limit on one side only The charters in question are not *older* than the reign of Edward; many being (spite of the date) younger.

The name of Stigand, the archbishop, is of almost equal importance with that of the king Yet how much the orthographies, *at least*, differ. In one charter (No. 820) there is a final *æ*. In one of Wulfwold's (No 821) we have the shorter form *cinge* (with no *k*); in No 822, the fuller form *cyninge*. In No 836 we have the shorter form *cing*; but the fuller forms *scyre*, and *pegenas* = *shire* and *thanes*. This is in a Charter of Edward's. In another of Edward's, No 850, we have no final *æ*, no *k*, but *cing*, *peines*, and *sirefen* = *shire-reeves* = *sheriffs*. Sometimes we have *cyþe* = *make known*; sometimes *kyþe* As a general rule, the Anglo-Saxon letter was *c*, the Danish *k* yet it would scarcely be safe, without a wider induction, to say that the use of *k* was a sign of Danish influence whilst, if it were, it would be a fact in the history of our spelling rather than a fact in the history of our language

§ 272. Even if the philologue delegate the question to the palæographer the matter becomes but a little clearer—if at all.

All that the palæographer can say is, that such a MS. is older than another. He has no MS. of which he knows the exact time and date to begin with. Argue as he may he is always in danger of arguing in a circle. I should add, however, that upon this point I speak with unfeigned diffidence, and that I most unwillingly differ from many high and sound authorities. Still, I hold that the whole mass of our *data* for the chronological history of our language requires more criticism than it has met with. Most inquirers in the matter of MSS. endorse the opinion of Wanley—the “good judge of the age of manuscripts.” Yet what was Wanley’s *primum mobile*—*ποῦ στῶ*? One MS. has the express statement that Dunstan signed it. Even if this be true, what is its value as a rule for earlier ones? What if the fact be (though probable) doubtful? It is surely easy to copy a statement that N or M did so-and-so. Who knows Dunstan’s handwriting? Individually, I am not satisfied with the dates given to the A S manuscripts, *when they pretend to extreme nicety and when they serve as the bases for future inquiries*. On the contrary, I believe that any form of Anglo-Saxon professing to be older than the reign of Edgar—for I look upon Dunstan as a landmark—requires special proof. This means that the ordinary, literary, or (if we choose to call it so) the classical, Anglo-Saxon represents, there or thereabouts, the Anglo-Saxon of Edgar’s and Ethelred’s reign. What uncertainty prevails immediately before, and immediately after, has been already indicated.

§ 273 Another landmark appears about the middle of the twelfth century, a landmark supplied by the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, upon the age of which something has already been written. The following is from the end of it—for it ends with the death of Stephen.

A.D. 1137. Ðis gære for þe king Stephne ofer sæ to Noimandi, and þer wes underfangen, for þæt hi wenden þæt he sculde ben alsinc else þe eom wes, and for he hadde get his tresor. Ac he to deld it and scatered sothce. Micel hadde Henri kng gadered gold and syluer, and na god ne dide me for his saule þar of. Ða þe kng Stephne to Englaland com, þa macod he his gadering æt Oxeneford, and þar he nam þe biscop Roger of Seicesber, and Alexander biscop of Lincoln, and to canceler Roger huse neues, and dide ælle in prisun, til hi rafen up here castles. Ða þe suikes undergæton þæt he milde man was and softe and god, and na justise ne dide, þa diden hi alle wunder. Hi haddren hun manied maked and aʒes sworen, ac hi nan tiewe ne heolden, alle he wæron forsworen, and here treowes forloren, for ænne rice man his castles makede and agænes hun heolden, and fylden þe land full of castles. Hi

suencten swiðe þe wiecec men of þe land mid castel-weorcce, þa þe castles wæren maked, þa fylden hi mid deowles and yuele men. Ða namen hi þa men þe hi wenden þæt an god hefden, baðe be miltes and be dæies, ealmen and wimmen, and diden heom in þisum efter gold and syluer, and pined heom untellendlice þining, for ne wæren næme nan martyrs swa pined also hi wæron. Me hanged up bi þe fet and smoked heom mid ful smoke, me hanged bi þe þumbes, oðer bi þe hefed, and hengen byringes on her fet. Me dide enotled stienges abuton here hæued, and unyðen to þæt it gæde to þe harnes. Hi diden heom in quaterne þar nadres and snakes and pades wæron mme, and drapen heom swa. Summe hi diden in ciucec hus, þæt is in an ceste þæt was seort and naieu, and undep, and dide sarpes stanes þer mme, and þrængde þe man þær mme, þæt hi bæcon alle þe limes. In man of þe castles wæron lof and gif, þæt wæron (?) iachtenges þæt twa oðer þe men haddn onh to bæron umme þæt was swa maced þæt is fæstned to an beam, and diden an sarp men abuton þa mannes þrote and his hals, þæt he ne miltre nowiderwades ne sitten, ne lien, ne slepen, oc bæron al þæt men. Man þusen hi drapen mid hunger. I ne canne, and ne mai tellen alle þa wundes, ne alle þe pines þæt hi diden wiecec men on his land, and þæt lastede þe xix wintre wile. Steþline was king, and æme it was unwise and unwise. Hi leiden gældes on þa times æm eñ wile, and clepeden it (?) tenserie, þa þe wiecec men ne haddn nan more to gænen, þa læueden hi and biendon alle þe tunes, þæt wel þu miltre faren all adars fare sculdest þu neuere finden man in tune sittende, ne land tiled. Ða was corn dæie, and flec, and cæse, and butere, for nan ne wæs o þe land. Wiecec men sturuen of hunger, summe ieden on almes þe wæren sum wile ne men sum flugen ut of laude. Wes næme gæt mare wieceched on land, ne næme heðen men werse ne diden þan hi diden for ouer siðon ne for-baren hi noudere enice, ne wice-werd, oc nam al þe god þæt þær mme was, and bienden syden þe cyrice and allegædere. Ne hi ne for-baren bisceopes land, ne abbotes, ne preostes, ac læueden muneces, and clerkes, and æme man oðer þe ouer myhte. Gif twa men oðer þe coman idend to an tun, al þe tunscepe flugan for heom, wendn þæt hi wæron læweres. Ðe bisceopes and leied men heom eumede æwe, oc was heom naht þær of, for hi wæron all for-eumæd and for-suoen and for loien. Was sæ me tiled þe erde ne bar nan corn, for þe land was all for-don mid swulce dædes, and hi sæden openlice þæt Crist slep, and his hudechen. Swile and mare þanne we cunnen sæm, we þolenden xix wintre for me sunnes. On al þis yuele tune heold Martin abbot his abbotrice x winter and half gear and viii dæis, mid meel sume, and fand þe muneces, and te gæstes al þæt heom behoued, and heold mycel caried in the hus, and þoð weðere wrohte on þe circe and sette þar to landes and rentes, and goded it swiðe and læt it ielen, and brohte heom into þe newe mynstre on S Petes mæssedæi mid meel witscipe, þæt was anno ab incarnatione Dom mxcxi a combustione loci xxiij. And he for to Rome and þær was wæl underfangen fram þe Pape Eugenie, and beget thare priuilegies, an of alle þe landes of þabbot-ricc, and an oðer of þa landes þe lien to þe ciucewican, and gif he leng moste luen, also he munt to don of þe hoideawycan. And he beget in landes þæt ne men hefden mid strengthe, of Willelm Maldut þe heold Rogingham þe castel, he wan Cotingham and Estun, and of Hugo of Walewile he wan Hythingh, and Stanewig, and lx sol of Aldewingle ælc gear. And he makede manne muneces, and plantede winærd, and makede manne woorkes, and wende þe tun betere þan it ær wæs, and wæs god munec and god man, and for hi hi læueden god and gode men.

Nu we willen sægen sum del wat belamp on Stephne kinges tunc On his tunc the Judeus of Norwic bohton an Cristen cild beforen Estien, and pineden him alle þe ðice þing þæt we Drihten was pined, and on langfriday him on iode hengen for we Drihtnes luue, and syðen byrieden him Wenden þæt it schulde ben soholen, oð we Drihten atywode þæt he was hal martyr, and to munekes him namen, and bebyried him heghce, in ðe mynstre, and he maket þu we Drihten wunderlice and manifeldlice miracles, and hatte he S Willehn

An MCXXX viii On þis gær com Dauid king of Scotland mid ormete færd to þis land, wolde winnan þis land, and him com togænes Willelm, eorl of Albani, þe þe king adde betoht Euowic, and to oðra æwez men mid fæu men and fuhten wid heom, and flemden þe king æt te Standard, and slogen suðe micel of his genge

An. MCXL On þis gær wolde þe king Stephne tæcen Rodbert eorl of Gloucestre, þe kinges sune Henries, ac he ne mihte for he wart it war Ða eftter hi þe lengten þestiede þe sunne and te ðæ abuton nontid dæies þa men eten þæt me lihtede candles to æten bi, and þæt was XIII k April, wæron men suðe of wundied Ðei eftter foud-teorde Willelm, Eicebiscep of Cantwar-byrig, and te king makede Teobald Eicebiscep þe was abbot in þe Bec Ðei eftter wæx suðe meel uenerie betwux þe king and Randolf eorl of Cæstie noht forð þæt he ne iaf him al þæt he cude axen him, also he dide alle oðre, oð ætne þe mare iaf heom þe wære hi wæron him Ðe eorl heold Lincol agænes þe king and benam him al þæt he ahte to hauen, and te king for þider and besætte him, and his brøðer Willelm de R aie in þe castel and te eorl stel ut and feide eftter Rodbert, eorl of Gloucestre, and broht him þider mid meel feird, and fuhten swiðe on Candelmassedæi agænes hore lauerd, and namen him, for his men him suyken and flugæn, and led him to Bristowe, and diden þar in prisun, end teres Ða was all Engleland styrd mar þan ær wæs, and all yuel was in lande Ðer eftter com þe kinges dohter Henries þe heide ben Emperie on Alamaue, and nu was cuntesse in Angou, and com to Lundene, and te Lundenssee fole hne wolde tæcen and sæe fleh, and forles þas micel Ðei eftter þe biscep of Wincestie Henri, þe kinges brøðer Stephnes, spæc wid Rodbert eorl and wid þ'emperice and swor heom aðis þæt he neuie ma mid te king his brøðer wolde halden, and cusede halle þe men þe mid him heolden, and sæde heom þæt he wolde ðuen heom up Wincestie, and dide heom cumen þider Ða hi þær inne wæren þa com þe kinges cun hure strengðe and besæt heom, þæt þer wæs inne micel hungær Ða hi ne leng ne mihten þolen, þa stah hi ut and flugen, and hi wuðen war wuðten and folecheden heom, and namen Rodbert eorl of Gloucestre and ledðen him to Roucestre, and diden him þære in prisun, and te emperice fleh into an mynstre. Ða feorden ða wise men betwux, þe kinges freond and te eorles freond, and sæhtlede swa þæt me schulde leten ut þe king of prisun for þe eorl, and te eorl for þe king, and swadiden Siðen ðei eftter sæthloden þe king and Randolf eorl at Stanfoid and aðes sworn and ticuðes fæston þæt hei nouðer schulde besuken oðer, and æc ne forstod naht, for þe king him siðen nam in Hamtun, þu he wreci ræd, and dide him in prisun, and efsones he let him ut þu he wære red to jæt forewarde þæt he suor on halidom, and gvsles fand, þæt he alle his castles schulde ðuen up Sumc he iaf up and sumc ne iaf he noht, and dide þanne wære ðanne he hæi schulde Ða was Engleland suðe todeled, sume helden mid te king, and sumc mid þ'emperice, for þa þe king was in prisun, þa wenden þe eorles and te ðice men þæt he neuie mare schulde cumme ut, and sæhtleden

wyd þ'empence, and brohten hine into Oxenford, and sauen hine þe burch
 Ða ðe kung was ute, þa heide þæt sægen, and to e his feord and besæt hine
 in þe tur, and me let hine dun on niht of þe tur mid rapes, and seal ut
 and sæc flic and wode on fote to Walingford Ðær efter sæc feide oðer sæc,
 and hi of Normandi wenden alle fia þe kung to þe eorl of Angau, sume here
 þankes and sume here unþankes, for he besæt heom til hi annen up here
 castles, and hi nan helpe ne hæfden of the kung Ða feide Eustace þe
 kunges sune to Fiance, and nam þe kunges suster of France to wife,
 wende to bigæton Normandi þær þær, oc he spedd leutel, and be gode
 rihte, for he was an yuel man, for wære se he dide mare yuel
 þanne god, he reude þe landes and leide mic s on, he brohte
 his wif to Engle-land, and dide hine in þe casto teb, god
 wimman sæc wæs, oc sæc hedde litel blisse mid him, and crist ne wolde þæt
 he sculde lange ixxan, and wærd ded and his moder becn, and to eorl of
 Angau wærd ded, and his sune Henri to e þe rice And to euen of Fiance
 todælde fia þe kung, and sæc com to þe unge eorl Henri, and he to e hine to
 wære, and al Peitou mid hine Ða feide he mid micel ferd into Engle-
 land, and wan castles, and te kung feide agenes him micel mare feid, and
 þoðwære futen hi noht, oc feiden þe Ælcebiscop and te wise men betwux
 heom, and makede þæt rihte þæt te kung sculde ben lauerd and kung wile he
 luede, and æfter his dær wære Henri kung, and he helde him for fader and he
 him for sune, and sib and sæhte sculde ben betwux heom and on al Engle-land
 Ðis and te oðre foruairdes þæt hi makeden suoren to halden þe kung and te
 eorl and te biscop, and te eorles, and uicemen alle Ða was þe eorl underfangen
 æt Wincestre and æt Lundene mid micel witscipe, and alle diden him mamed,
 and suoren þe pais to halden, and hit wærd sone suode god pais sua þæt neure
 was here Ða was ðe kung strengere þanne he æuert her was, and te eorl feide
 ouer sæ, and al tole him luede, for he dide god justise and makede pais

§ 274. Though this passes for part and parcel of the *A S Chronicle*, it looks much more like the fragment of a Homily inserted into it Be this, however, as it may, it is a landmark, inasmuch as it gives us a limit in one direction. It is no *earlier* than Henry II. Yet it is older in language than many of the Charters attributed to the Confessor

Here, however, as in so many other cases, the question of time or stage is complicated by that of place, or dialect; inasmuch as the part of the *Chronicle* under notice is held upon fan grounds to have been written at Peterborough. It gives us—

1 *The*, used as the definite article without respect to Gender, Number, or Case.

2. The omission of the prefix *ge* in all past participles except one; that one being *gehaten* = *hight* = *called*, a word, which in the Northumbrian dialects, retained its initial after all, or nearly all, of its congeners had lost it.

It, also, gives us other new forms besides. It is decidedly Anglo-Saxon rather than Old English; and it is, as decidedly,

Anglo-Saxon of the times subsequent to the Norman Conquest. Such, indeed, as a matter of course, are all the notices in the *Chronicle*, of which it is a part, for the years subsequent to A D 1066—the date of the battle of Hastings.

The extract, then, just given along with the parts which precede it is our second great landmark. Around it we may group—and this is all we can do—the following—

1. Those Charters, which are shown by their language to be as old as the eleventh and twelfth centuries, and by their matter to be as new

2. A poem known as the *Rhyming poem*; which its rhymes make new, its language old

3. (?) An alliterative poem, which, though fragmentary, is of great and gloomy power, known as *The Grave*

These are truly what is called Semi-Saxon rather than Old English, and constitute the older subsection of the section so named

§ 275. Then come two well-known poems *Layamon* and *Ormulum*, of which all that can be safely said is that they are later than the notice of the reign of Stephen, and earlier than that of Henry III

Layamon is found in two forms:—

1
Bladuf hadde enc sune,
Len was ihaten,
Efter his fader daie,
He heold þis drihlice lond,
Somed an his live,
Sixti winter
He makade ane nīche burh,
þurh radfulle his crafte,
And he heo lette nemnen,
Efter him seolvan,
Kacel-Len hehte þe burh
Leof heo wes þan kinge
þa we, an ure leod-quede,
Len chestie clepad,
Geare a þan holde dawon

1
Bladud hadde one sone,
Leir was ihote,
After his fader he held þis lond,
In his owene hond,
Haste his lif-dages,
Sixti winter
He makede on nīche boih,
þurh wisemenne reade,
And hune lette nemmen,
After him seolve,
Kacel-Len hehte þe boih
Leof he was þan kinge,
þe we, on ure speche,
Leþ-chestie cleopreþ,
In þan eolde daye

Translation literal

2.
Bladud had a son,
Leir was hight,
After his father's days
He held his hege land
Together on (through) his life,
Sixty winters
He made a nīch borough

2
Bladud had a son,
Leir was hight
After his father he held the land
In his own hand
Through his life-days
Sixty winters
He made a nīch borough

Though his wise craft,
And he it let name
After himself
Caei Leai hight the bugh
Deai was it to the king
Which we on our language
Leicester call
Of yore on the old days.

Through wise men's counsel,
And he let it name
After himself
Caei Leai hight the borough
Deai was it to the king
Which we, on our speech,
Leicester call
In the old days

§ 276. In the *Ormulum* (which is generally looked upon as, more or less, Danish—though without good reason) there is the same omission of the prefix *ge* as in the *Chronicle*. There is also the use of the forms in *th* for the plural of *he*—*e. g. the 53r = their* = W. S. *heora*. There is also the use of *the* for the definite article: also that of *aren-are* for *synd*, or *syndon*.

§ 277. *The Proclamation of Henry III*—This is our next landmark. It was delivered soon after the battle of Lewes, A.D. 1258, and passes for the earliest specimen of English, and runs thus —

Henry, thung Godes fultome, King on Englencloude, lhaund on Yr-
loand, Duke on Normand, on Acqutan, Earl on Anjou, send I gretung to alle
hise holde, lseide & leweide on Huntingdonschere

That witen ge well alle, that we willen & unnen that we raedesmen alle
other, the moare del of heom the beoth ichosen thurg us and thung that
loandes-folk on we Kuneiche, habbith idon, and schullen don, in the worth-
nes of God, and we thincowthe, for the freme of the loande, thurg the besigte
of than toforen iside raedesmen, beo stedfaest and lestinde in alle thinge
abutan ende, and we heaten alle we ticowe, in the ticowthe that heo us oge,
thet heo stede fessliche healden & wren to healden & to sweren the isetnesses,
thet beon makede and beo to makien, thung than toforen iside raedesmen,
other thurg the moare del of heom alswo, alse hit is before iside. And thet
æheother helpe thet for to done bitham ilche other, aganes alle men in alle
thet heo ogt for to done, and to foangen. And noan ne of mine loande, ne of
egetewhere, thung this besigte, muge beon let other iwersed on oarewise. And
gif om ether ome cumen her ongenes, we willen & heaten, that alle we ticowe
heom healden deadlicustan. And for that we willen that this beo stedfaest
and lestinde, we senden gew this writ open, isemed with we seel, to halden
amanges gew me hord. Witnese usselven at Lundæn, thane egeteten the day
on the month of Octobr, in the two and fowertithe gear of we crunning

In Modern English

Henry, through God's support, King of England, Lord of Ireland, Duke of
Normandy, of Acquitain, Earl of Anjou, sends greeting, to all his subjects,
learned and unlearned (*i. e.* clergy and laity) of Huntingdonshire. Thus
know ye well all, that we will and grant, what our counsellors or the more
part of them, that be chosen through us and through the land-folk of our

kingdom, have done, and shall do, to the honour of God, and our allegiance, for the good of the land, through the determination of those before-said counsellors, be stedfast and permanent in all things without end, and we enjoin all our lieges, by the allegiance that they thus owe, that they stedfastly hold and swear to hold and to maintain the ordinances that be made and be to be made through the before-said counsellors, or through the more part of them also, as it is before said, and that each other help that for to do by them each other, against all men, in all that they ought for to do, and to promote And none either of my land nor of elsewhere, through this business, may be impeded or damaged in any way And if any man or any woman cometh them against, we will and enjoin that all our lieges them hold deadly foes And for that we will that this be stedfast and lasting, we send you this writ open, sealed with our seal, to keep amongst you in store Witness ourself at London, the eighteenth day of the month of October, in the two and fourteenth year of our crowning

§ 278 After the battle of Lewes our dates improve, and we begin with the times of Robert of Gloucester and his successors—the history, both of our literature and our language, being continuous Enough, however, has been said to show the great extent to which definite dates and precise localities are wanted. Of *Layamon* and the *Ormulum*, however, all has not been said that we must say They will re-appear when the details of the English dialects come under notice The question of *stages* is the one now before us. It has been said that, in a definite and minute way, there is much concerning them which we have yet to work out. and so it is. This, however, only applies to the question of date and place. How long were certain changes in being brought about? Are they really and purely changes of the same language and the same dialect? Are not some of them points of dialect rather than development? Are not others points of spelling rather than language? Such scepticism as has been suggested applies only to questions of this kind.

§ 279 Of the actual changes we know both the principle and the details—at any rate, we know them to a great extent Inflections were lost Prepositions and (to a certain extent) auxiliary verbs, and the like, replaced them The great repertory for the details of all these are Dr. Guest's papers in the *Transactions of the Philological Society*; papers which we may hope will be republished as a separate monograph. How far such changes as took place were accelerated by the Norman Conquest is another question.

§ 280. So is that of the value of the terms Semi-Saxon, Old English, and the like. We get them by classifying according to *type*—by type rather than definition. They run into each other.

Still by taking the centres of groups, and arranging other forms round them, we get a rough approximation. The following is from Mr Hallam.

"Nothing can be more difficult, except by an arbitrary line, than to determine the commencement of the English language: not so much, as in those on the Continent, because we are in want of materials, but rather from an opposite reason, the possibility of showing a very gradual succession of verbal changes that ended in a change of denomination. We should probably experience a similar difficulty, if we knew equally well the current idiom of France or Italy in the seventh and eighth centuries. For when we compare the earliest English of the thirteenth century with the Anglo-Saxon of the twelfth, it seems hard to pronounce why it should pass for a separate language, rather than a modification or simplification of the former. We must conform, however, to usage, and say that the Anglo-Saxon was converted into English — 1 By contracting and otherwise modifying the pronunciation and orthography of words. 2 By emitting many inflections, especially of the noun, and consequently making more use of articles and auxiliaries. 3 By the introduction of French derivatives. 4 By using less inversion and ellipsis, especially in poetry. Of these, the second alone I think, can be considered as sufficient to describe a new form of language, and this was brought about so gradually, that we are not relieved from much of our difficulty, as to whether some compositions shall pass for the latest offspring of the mother, or the earlier fruits of the daughter's fertility. It is a proof of this difficulty that the best masters of our ancient language have lately introduced the word Semi-Saxon, which is to cover everything from A.D. 1150 to A.D. 1250" — Chap. 1, 417

§ 281. It only remains to speak of Anglo-Saxon Laws. They begin with Ine and end with Edward the Confessor. The criticism that applied to the Charters applies to the Laws also. The differences of date by no means give us a difference of language

CHAPTER IV.

ON THE DIALECTS OF THE ANGLO-SAXON — THE WEST-SAXON. — THE NORTHUMBRIAN — THE GLOSSES OF THE RUSHWORTH GOSPELS — THE DURHAM GOSPELS. — THE RITUAL. — THE RUTHWELL CROSS. — THE COTTON PSALTER

§ 282 THE points of difference between the West-Saxon and the Northumbrian, the two extreme dialects of the Anglo-Saxon, upon which we must most particularly concentrate our attention, are the following:—

1 The details connected with the demonstrative pronoun; remembering that out of it has grown what is called the pro-

noun of the third person, as well as the definite article—*he, heo, hit*—*se, seo*—*þæt, þeir, þa, þe*; or, in the present language, *he, it*—*she—that, they, the*—

2 The oblique cases in *-n*; like *steorran, tungan, &c.*—

3 The Plurals in *-an* (*munec-an*), as contrasted with those in *-as* (*munec-as* = *monks*)—

4 The infinitives; observing whether they end in *-an* or *-a*—

5 The first person singular, observing whether it ends in *-e* or *-o*—

6. The second person singular; observing whether it ends in *-is* or *-ist*—

7 The three persons of the plural; observing whether they end in *-þ* or *-s*—

8. The forms signifying *am, art, is, are, be, was, &c.*—

9 The form of the participle; whether it begins with, or without, *ge-* or *y-*—

These require attention, because it is in respect to these that the two typical forms of the Anglo-Saxon chiefly differ from each other. Some characterize the *West-Saxon*, some the *Northumbrian* form of speech

1 The West-Saxon article is *se, seo, þæt* = *ὁ, ἡ, το* in Greek, and like the Greek *ὁ, ἡ, το*, it consists of one word for the masculine and feminine genders of the nominative case, and another for the neuter and the oblique cases. Thus *þone* = *τον*; *þere* = *της, τη*, *þám* = *τῷ*, *þes* = *του*; *þara* = *των*. In other words, the definite pronoun was used as an article, and its inflection was a full one;—consisting chiefly in forms of the root *þ-*, but also in *se* and *seo*. Meanwhile, the inflection of *he* was *he, heo, hit*, *heo* being used where we use *she*; and *she*, itself being from *seo*, the definite article of the West-Saxons. Thirdly; the West-Saxon equivalents to *they, them, and their*, were *hi, him, heora*, plurals of *he*.

2, 3. The West-Saxon genitive of *steorra* = *star*, was *steorran*. The nominative plural was also *steorran*.

4. The West-Saxon infinitives ended in *-an*, as *lufi-an* = *love*. All this indicates a liking for terminations in *-n*.

5 The first person singular of the present indicative ended in *-e*; as *ic bærn-e* = *I burn*.

6 The second person singular ended in *-st*.

7. The plural was *wi bærn-aþ, gi bærn-aþ, hi bærn-aþ*, = *we, ye, they burn*.

8. Where we say, *we are, ye are, they are*, the West Saxons

said, *wi syndon*, *gi syndon*, *hi syndon*, or (later) *wi synd*, *gi synd*, *hi synd*. This is the German *seyn*—a word wholly wanting to the present English.

9. The W. S. prefixed *ge-* to the past participle; as *gelufod* = *loved*.

The West-Saxon belonged to the South, the Northumbrian to the North of our Island. The names alone tell us this. The fact, however, is anything but an unimportant one. In the first place it induces us to ask, where are the dialects of the intervening districts, the East-Anglian of Suffolk and Norfolk, and the Mercian of Northampton and Derby? To this the answer is unsatisfactory. Few samples of them are known; and, even in the few we have, there is none in which a West-Saxon influence is not discernible. Again, it shows that the assumption of any real difference between the Angle and the Saxon, as an explanation of any differences between the West-Saxon and the Northumbrian is gratuitous. The dialects in question differ as the dialects of two geographical extremes.

Again—the provincial dialects of the present time can be shown to graduate into each other—at least, to a great extent. This is because we have specimens from nearly every county. For the Anglo-Saxon dialects we have a great gap.

§ 283. Premising that *Northumbrian* means *North of the Humber*, and that (so doing) it includes Yorkshire, I draw attention to the fragmentary or rudimentary character of the class denoted by the term. Compared with the West-Saxon, in respect to its literature, it is little more than a local dialect. Indeed its extant literature, in the higher sense of the word, is *nil*. It consists, if we limit ourselves to the records of which the time and place are ascertained, and the translation is satisfactory, to little more than three sets of glosses, and one inscription.

§ 284. 1 *The Glosses of the Rushworth Gospels*.—The Glosses on the Rushworth Gospels are referred by Wanley, whose opinion is adopted by Mr. Garnett, to the end of the ninth, or to the beginning of the tenth century. This, however, is by no means certain. The place at which, at least, a portion of them was written seems to have been Harwood, in Wharfedale. If so, they give us the most southern sample of the division to which they belong. The names of the writers are known. There were two—one of them being named Farmenn. He it is who describes himself as a priest at Harawuda. The first part of the interlineation is his, and it is remarkable that the Northum-

brian character is less marked in Farmenn's part than it is in his coadjutor's: whose name was Owen—a British designation. The first of the following specimens is from Mr. Garnett's paper on the *Languages and Dialects of the British Islands*; the peculiar forms being in Italics. the second from Bouterwek's *Screadunga*, pp 31–33.

1.

Rushworth Gospels

JOHN, chap iv

þæt forþon [þe hælend] ongætt
[fætte] gihædon þa *ahle* wearias þætte
the hæl[end] mounge thegnas wryceth
and *fuluath* þonne Ioh' [annes] (þeþ
þe, I' swa he, þe hæl' ne *fuluade* ah
þegnas hus) foileort Judeam *eorþo*
and *foerde* efter sona in Galileam
wæs *gi* dæfendlic wutudl' [ice] hme
þætte of [ei] *foerde* þerh tha burg [Sa-
maria] com forþon in tha cæstic Sa-
mar', þio is *geworden* Sichai neh þer
byrig þætte *salle* Jacob Josepes suno
hus wæs wutudl' thei walla Jacobes
The hæl' forþon *uoery* wæs of
gonge, sitende wæs, and sæt, swa ofer
þam *ualla* tid wæs swelc þio sexta
wif [com] of *thei byrig* to hladaune
þæt wæter, cwæth him þe hæl', *sel* me
drinca þegnas wutudl' *foerdun* in
cæstic þætte mete *bohtun* him cwæth
fithon to him þæt wif þio Samaita-
nesca, hu thu Judese mith thy *arþ*
dimeonde from me *groues* tu þa þe
mith thy wif's [sie'] Samaitanese?
ne for þon *gibryche* biþ Judea to Sa-
maritaniscum *giondswaiade the* hæl'
and cwæp him, gif þu *wistes* hus Godes
and hwele weie se the cwæth the *sel*
me *drinca* þu wutudl' and woens
mara, gif tha *georwades* [giowades]
from him and [he] *gisalde* the wæter
cwie welle cwæth to him þæt wif,
diht [en] ne m [m"] hwon tha hlado
hæfest þu, and the pytt neh is hwona,
and hwer, foithon hæfest þu wæter
cwiew elle? ah ne *arþu* mara feder
usum Jacobe *seþe* *salle* us *thosne* pytt,
and *walla*, and he of him dianc and
suno hus and feofofoto, and nreano
[notenn], hus?

Hutton Gospels

JOHN, chap iv

Ða se Hælend wiste þæt þa Phari-
sei geliyden, þet he hæfdeema (*ser*)
leorning emhta þonne Johannes peah
se Hælend ne fullode ac hys leorning
emhtas Ða foilet he Judea land and
for eft on Galilea, hym ge byrode þæt
he seolde faran þurh Samaria land
Wicche he com on Samaritan cæstic,
þe ys ge nenneth Sichai, neah þam
tunc þe Jacob sealde Josepe hys suno
þær wæs Jacobes wille So Hælend
sæt æt þā welle, þa he wæs wen gegan
and hyt wæs middæg Ða com þær
an wif of Samaria wolde water fecca
Ða cwæð se Hælend to hyre, "Gyf
me drinca" Hys leorning emhtes
ferdon þa to þære cæstic woldon heom
mete beggen Ða cwæð þæt Samari-
tanisce wif to hym, "Hu mete bydst
þu at me dienken þonne þu eist Ju-
deise, and ic em Samaritanise wif
Ne brucað Judeas and Samaritanisce
metes at gadere" Ða answeide so
Hælend and cwæð to hyre, "Gif þu
wistes Godes gyfe and hwæt se ys þe
cwæð to þe 'Sele me drinca', witol-
lice þu bede hyne þæt he sealde þe
lyfes wæter" þa cwæð þæt wif to
hym, "Leof ne þu næfst nan þing mid
to hladene, and þet ys deop lwanen
hafst þu lyfes wæter cwest ðu þæt þu
marc sy þonne me foder Jacob, se þe
us þisne pytt sealde, and he hys bearn
and hys nytann of þam drinca?"

Euangelium Marci

on fuma godspelles haelendes cistes sunu godes swa
 CAP I.—1 Intium euangelii Iesu Christi filii Dei 2 Sicut
 awriten is in esaa þone wigu heuu ic sende engel min beforan
 scriptum est in Isaa propheta ecce ego mitto angelum meum ante
 onseonc þine seþe egearwað weg þine stemu chopande in
 faciem tuam qui praeparabit uiam tuam ante te 3 Uox clamantis in
 westenne gearwigað weig drihtnes ichte wyrcap *rel* donð stige *rel* gongas his
 deserto parate uiam domini iestas lacite semitas eius
 4 was iohannes in westenne gefulwade and bodade fullwiht lincow-
 Fuit Ioannes in deserto baptizans et praedicans baptismum poe-
 misse in foegfisse synna and forende was *rel* foerde to him
 tentiae in remissionem peccatorum 5 Et egrediebatur ad eum
 alle iudeas londe and ða huciosolmisca alle and gefullwade fið
 omnis Iudaeae regio et Ierosolymitae unuersi et baptizabantur ab
 him in iordanes streame ondetende synna heora and was
 illo in Iordani flumine confitentes peccata sua 6 Et erat
 iohannes gegeclad *rel* gewedad mīð herum cameles and gyrðels felleme ymb
 Ioannes uestitus pilis cameli et zona pellicea circa
 lendenu his and waldstapan *rel* loppestia and wudu huniges þæt wæxep on
 lumbos eius et locustas et mel silu-
 wude bendum and þæt brucende was and bodade eweþende
 estie edebat 7 Et praedicabat dicens
 cymeþ dom strongie mee æft me dæs *rel* his nan ic wriðe fore hlutende
 uenit fortior me post me cuius non sum dignus procumbens
 undon *rel* loesan þwongas geseoas his ic fulwade eowic
 soluere corrigiam calcamentorum eius 8 Ego baptizauit uos
 in wætie he wiotudlice gefulwað eowic mīð gaste halgū And
 aqua ille uero baptizabit uos spiritu sancto 9 Et
 awoiden was in dagum ðæm ewom se haelend fið nazareð þære byrig
 factum est in diebus illis uenit Iesus a Nazareth
 to galilea and gefulwad was in iordanen fið iohanne And onstýde
 Galilaeae et baptizatus est in Iordane a Ioanne 10 Et statim
 astag of wætie geseh ontynde heofunas and gastes halga swilce
 ascendens de aqua uidit apertos coelos et spiritum tanquam
 culfra of dune stigende and wunende in him *rel* in ðæm And staftin
 columbam descendentem et manentem in ipso 11 Et uox
 geworden was of heofune þu eart sunu min leof on ðe ic wel hceade
 facta est de coelis tu es filius meus dilectus in te complacui
 and sona þe gast draf hine on westen and was on westen
 12 Et statim spiritus expulit eum in descitum 13 Et erat in deserto
 feowertag daga and feowertig næhta and was acunnad fið
 quadraginta diebus et quadraginta noctibus et tentabatur a
 þæm wīðerwearda was mīð wilde deorum and englas geþegnedon *rel* heidon
 satana eratque cum bestis et angelis ministrabant

him æfter þon wutudlice gesald was iohannes ewom se hælend in gali-
 illi 14 Postquam autem traditus est Ioannes uenit Iesus in Gali-
 lea bodade godspelles iice godes and cweþende forþon
 lacam praedicans euangelium regni Dei 15 Et dicens quoniam
 gefylled is tide and to genealacede iice godes hreowsiaþ and
 impletum est tempus et appropinquauit regnum Dei poenitemini et
 geleaf in godspell and færende bi sæ galilea gesaþ
 ciedite euangelio 16 Et practeriens secus maie Galilaeae uidit
 simonē þæt is petrus and andreas brōðer his hia sendende nett on sæ
 Simonem et Andream fratrem eius mittentes retia in mare
 werun forþon fisceies and cwæþ heō to se hælend cunaþ æfter me
 eiant enim piscatores 17 Et dixit eis Iesus uenite post me
 and gedoa eowic þæt ge beoþan *rel* geseon fisceies monnū and
 et faciam uos fella piscatores hominum 18 Et
 iicenhee mī þy forleten nett fylgende werun him and foerde
 protinus ielctis ietibus secuti sunt cum 19 Et progressus
 þonan lytel hwon gesaþ iacobus zebedes sunu and iohannes brōðer his
 inde pusillum uidit Iacobum Zebedaei et Ioannem fratrem eius
 and þa ilca *rel* hia in scip gesetton þæt nett and sona *rel* ða ihiht
 et ipsos in nau componentes ietia 20 Et statim
 geceigde hia and mī þy flet fæder his zebodeus in scipe mī þæ hyre
 uocauit illos et ielcto patre suo Zebedaeo in nau cum merce-
 monnum fylgende werun him and infocidun capharnaum þære byrig
 nauis secuti sunt cum 21 Et ingreduntur Capharnaum
 and soua ieste dagas infocide *rel* incode to somnungum gelærde hia
 et statim sabbatis ingressus in synagoga docebat eos
 and swigadun *rel* stylton ofer læie his wæs forþon lærende hia
 22 Et stupebant super doctrina eius eiat enim docens eos
 swilce *rel* swa he mæhte hæfde and no swa uðwutu and wæs in
 quasi potestatem habens et non sicut scribae 23 Et eiat in
 somnungum heora monn in gaste unclænum and oft cleopado
 synagoga eorum homo in spiritu immundo et exclamauit
 cwæþende hwæt us and de þy hælend ðe nazarensca come þu
 24 dicens quid nobis et tibi Iesu Nazarene uenisti
 to losane *rel* loiene usc ic wat hwæt þu eart habg god and
 peirdaie nos scio qui sis sanctus Dei 25 Et
 bebeod *rel* beboden is him se hælend cwæðende swiga þu and gaa of
 comminatus est ei Iesus dicens obmutesce et exi de
 dæm menn gast unclæne and bitende *rel* bat hine gast ðe unclæne and
 homine 26 Et discerpens eum spiritus immundus et
 of chopande stæfne micelre *rel* micle and ofeode fiō him and wundrende
 exclamans uoce magna exiit ab eo 27 Et mirati
 wærun alle þus þæte hie frugnon *rel* ascadun betwihe heom cweþende
 sunt omnes ita ut conquerent inter se dicentes
 hwæt þæt is þis hwile lar þios *rel* ðas mowa is forþon in mæhte
 quidnam est hoc? quoniam doctrina haec noua? quia in potestate

and gastum nnelannum hatap and edmodað him and sprang *vel*
 etiam spiritibus immundis imperat et obediunt ei. 28 Et pro-
 focerde mersung *vel* merðo hus sona *vel* instyde *vel* ræpe in eallum þa londe
 cessit tumor eius statim in omnem regionem
 galilæe and reeco focerde of somnunga comon in hus
 Gahlaeac 29 Et protinus egredientes de synagoga uenerunt in domum
 þæt is petrus and andreas mið iacob and iohannes gelegen was
 Simonis et Andree cum Iacobo et Ioanne 30 Decumbabat
 wutudlice swægre þæt is petrus fefer dufende and ræpe cwædon to him of
 autem socius Simonis febricitans et statim dicunt ei de
 þa *vel* of þære and com gencolæcde aho! ða ilea and mið þy gegripen
 illa 31 Et accedens eleuauit eam apprehensa
 was hond hus and ienuehe folet ho hal frō ude sohte *vel* gedrif and
 manu eius et continuo dimisit eam febris et
 gepægnode heom afeu wutudlice þa gewarð miðþy to sete eode
 ministrabat eis 32 Uespere autem facto cum occidisset
 sunne gefocudum brohtun to him alle þa ylle habbende and deoful hæ
 sol affecriant ad eum omnes male habentes et daemonia ha-
 bende (*sic*) and was alle cæstre *vel* burg gesomnad to dore *vel* geat
 bentes 33 Et erat omnis ciuitas congregata ad ianuam
 and lecnade monige þa þe weran geswæneto missenheum adlun
 34 Et curauit multos qui uocabantur uarus languoribus
 and deofles monige he fdiæf *vel* afinde and ne let him sprecan
 et daemonia multa euecribat et non sinobat ea loqui
 forþon he wisten hinc and on æringe swiðe was and focerde *vel*
 quoniam sciebant eum 35 Et diluculo ualde sugens egres-

ferende eode in westige stowe *vel* styde and ða gebæd and fylgende
 sus abut in desertum locum ibique orabat 36 Et persecutus
 was him simon and þa ðe mið him wærun and miðþy onfundun
 est eum Simon et qui cum illo erant 37 Et cum inuenissent
 hine cwædon to him ifon alle soecap ðe and cwæp to heom so
 eum dixerunt ei quia omnes quaerunt te 38 Et ait illis
 hælenð gā we *vel* wutu gangan in þa nehsto lond and ða cæstie þa we
 eamus in proximos uicos et ciuitates ut
 and ec ðær ic bodige and to ðisse forþon ic com and was bodande
 et ibi praedicem ad hoc enim ueni 39 Et erat praedicans
 in somnungum heora and alle gahle and deoflas forðæf *vel* fwaip
 in synagogis eorum et in omni Gahlaea et daemonia eueniens
 and com to him he þrowere bed *vel* bidende (*sic*) him and mid eneu
 40 Et uenit ad eum lepius depieans eum et genu
 begende *vel* begunge cwæp gif þu wilt þu mæh me geclensige se hælend
 flexo dixit ei si uis potes me mundare 41 Iesus
 wutudlice þa was multsende him gerahte honda hus and bran him
 autem misertus eius extendit manum suam et tangens eum
 cwæp to him ic wille geclensie and mið þy cwæp hæpe focerde from
 ait illi uolo mundare 42 Et cum dixisset statim discessit ab

him þe hmoƿal and geelensad was and beboden was him hræpe and
eo lepra et mundatus est 43 Et comminatus est ei statimque
draf hine and cwæp to him gesih þu nænegum menn sæge *vel* cwepe
eicet illum 44 Et dixit ei uide nemini dixit

ah gaa æteaw þe ðæm aldor sacerd and agef for clænsunge þine
sed uade ostende te principi sacerdotum et offer pro emundatione tua
þa þe heht moyses in cƿnusse ðam soð he foerde ongan
quæ pœcepit Moyses in testimonium illis 45 Atque ille egressus coepit
bodige and mæisige word þus þæt wutudlice ne mæhte cawunga
prædicare et diffamare sermonem ita ut iam non posset manifeste
in ða ceastic ingangan *vel* ineode ah butan in wëstigum stowum were and
in crutatem intione sed foris in desertis locis esset et
gesomnadum *vel* efne comon to him æghwonan fîo æghwileu halfe
conueniebant ad eum undique

§ 285 2. *The Glosses of the Durham, or Lindisfarn Gospels* — *Quatuor Evangelia Latina, ex translatione S Hieronymi, cum glossâ interlineatâ Saxonica* — Cotton MSS Nero, D. 4.

1

MATTHEW, chap. ii

mæðy aod (') gecenned were hæleod in ðæm byrig in dagum He-
Cum ergo natus esset Jesus in Bethleem Judææ in diebus He-
rodes cƿnnges heonu ða tunglcræftga of eustdael cwomun to hierusalem
iouis Regis, ecce magi ab oriente venerunt Hierosolymam,
cweoðonde
hu cwoedon huc is ðe acenned is cƿnig Judeumu gesegon we forðon
dicentes Ubi est qui natus est rex Judæorum? vidimus enim
tungul
steiru his in eustdael and we cwomun to worðan^a hine geheide wrotodlice
stellam ejus in oriente et venimus adorare eum Audiens autem
ða burgwara
herodes se cƿnig gedioefed was and alle ða hierusalemisca mið him and
Herodes turbatus est et omnis Hierosolyma cum illo Et
mesapiensi
gesomuede alle ða aldormenn biscopa and ða u nutta ðæs toleas
congregatus (sc) omnes principes sacerdotum et scribas populi,
geascode
georne gefiagnde fia him huc eist acenned were
sciscitabatur ab eis ubi Christus nasceretur

2

ongunnas forwealdmeicunga æft iohanne :

[fol 203] INCIPUNT CAPITULA SECUNDUM IOHANNEM

in fruma *vel* in fina uord *vel* crist ues god mið gode ðerh ðome lea
1 In principio uerbum deus apud deum per quem

^a From Bouterwck's *Serædunga*, pp 12 11

gewoht weran alle and iohanne þæt woere gesendel gesægd is ær *vel* befa
 facta sunt omnia et Iohannes missus referitur ante
 him ða ðe eft onfoas þæt hia se gewyrces suno goddes ðerh geafu his
 eum qui recipient esse facit filios dei per gratiam suam
 ðæm fiasendum iudeum iohanne onsæcces hine þæt he sie crist ah
 11 Interrogantibus Iudæis Iohannes negat se esse Christum sed

æc

þæt gesendet were heseolf befe ðæm and stefn þæte he were choppendes in
 mussum se ante illum uocemque esse clamantis in
 uoestern sefter isaas ðæm utga gesægeð ðe ilca untetlice geondete
 descito secundum Esaiam enuntiat ipsum uero fatetur

o

lemb laedende *vel* niomende synno middangeardes æc fuluande in halge
 agnum tollentē peccata mundi et baptizantem in spiritu

o

gaste forðon ðe ilca sic *vel* is on ufa allum *vel* of alle of tuæm
 sancto eo quod ipse sit supra omnes III Ex duobus
 iohanne ðegnum ða ðe fylgendo ueron ðæm dihten an tolaedde
 Iohannis discipulis qui secuti fuerant dominum unus Andreas adduxit
 broder his se ðe petrus fion ðæm ues genemmed æc ðon
 fratiem suum qui Petrus ab ipso nuncupatus Philippus quoque
 ues gecegead bearn godes gebecnas se ðe sona betuuh oðrum ðe ilca godes
 uocatus natana heli indicat qui mox inter cetera eum domni
 sunu bið geondetad in ðæm færmū þæt uæter ymbeceide *vel* gecerde in
 filium confitetur IIII In nubis aquam conuertit in
 win muððy ues auorden cuðlice gesæne þæte ðe heseolf ues gehaten
 unum quo facto cognoscitur quod ubi ipse fuerat mutatus
 un nedðærf sie þæte gescypte ðæra farma muððy geneoliede eastro
 unum necesse sit deficere nubiarum V Propter quante pascha
 iudeana auarþ ða cependo *vel* of temple and ðæm fiasendum *vel* huæt *vel* becon
 Iudæorum erit uidentes e templo et interrogantibus quod signum
 gesalde to undoanne tempul *vel* and um ðrim dagum wæccennes clænrum *vel* godes
 daret soluendi templum et in triduo excitandi miste-
 degelnise setteð ðæm ðegne bituuh menigo cuoesh buta sic eft æccenned in
 rum ponit VI Nicodemo inter multa dicit nisi renatus in
 ric godes ingeonga ne mæge *vel* þæte ne gedoema ah gehacle
 regnum domni intiare non posse uel quod non iudicare sed saluare
 gecume midg and þæt woere acdeauad cuæð uoerc ða ðe in gode aron
 uenerit mundū et manifestari dicit opera quæ in domino sancta
 gewordne in ðæm stoue fuluande is gecuoeden ðone hælend
 facta VII Iohanni in Aenon baptizanti dicitur iohannem
 fulgege ðe ilca bydguma þæte sie and gedoefenhe is þæte gewox hine
 baptizare quem ille sponsum esse et oportere crescere se
 hueðre lythge and ðe ilca ufa and on ufa allū were æc to gelefanne
 autem munui illumque desursum et supra omnes esse credentemque
 in hine þæte hæfde lif éce ofer ðone ungeleaffulle uitt uræððo
 in eum habere uitam æternam super incredulum uero iram

geumia getrymeð *rel* gefæstna ðæt uælle iacobes ðæm uife samari-
 manere confirmat viii Apud puteum Iacob mulier samari-
 tanisca wæs ædcaued nuð menigū deglum iūnū spæc and monig
 tan[a]e manifestatus pluimo mystice loquitur et multa
 ðara samaritanscana hoda gelefeð on hinc cuoðendo ðis is soðlice
 Samaritanorum credunt in eum dicentes hic est uere
 haelend middangeardes iegluoides sunu sunu oðer untrymende
 saluator mundi viii Reguli cuiusdam filius aegrotans
 ondueadnese diht stefne gehæled brð cuoðendes feder his gaa sunu
 absentis domini uoce sanatur dicentis patri eius uado filius
 ðin hofað gelefde ðe ilca and hus his all monno
 tuus uuit credidit ipse et domus eius tota x Hominem
 calitu and ðirtðeih untia habende in untymusse his mæðy gecuoed ams
 XXXVIII annos habentem in infirmitate sua dicendo suis
 num bōie ðine and geong in sunnedoeg haelcð efne gelic hinc þæt
 tolle grabatum tuum et ambula in sabbato curat aequalem se quod
 uas doende gode þæt sunu suælee fader auoehte deado sic
 eiat faciens deo xi Quod filius sicut pater suscitans mortuos sit
 geliclic awwyðe in ðæm gelefdon ofleorað of deaðe to hie tocyrende
 aequaliter honorandus in quo credentes transcant de morte ad uitam uenturam
 æc ðon soðsæges ðio tid ðona of byrgennū godo æc ða yflo eft amsað
 quoque promittat horam quo de monumentis boni malique resurgunt
 te cyðnisse his iohanne ðæccille cergeð and æc ðone læde[1] and
 xii Pro testimonio suo Iohannem lucernam appellat patrem quoque et
 gemotlo of him cyðnisse getrymeð iudæos oðerne eft foende *rel* of him
 scribtunas de se testimonium perhibere Iudæos alium iceptuos de se
 uūt moysi mæðy amsat gefæstnaede mæðy geneolecde castro
 autem Mozen scribisse testatur xiii. Propinquante pascha
 iudeana of fif hlafū and tuæm fiscum and fif ðasendo
 Iudæorum de quinque panibus et duobus piscibus quinque milha
 monno gefylde fe ðæm tacne mæðy to cynnge hinc uallað doa *rel* ge-
 hominum saturauit pro quo signo cum regem cum uellent fa-
 o
 wyica geflæh and gecade *rel* geongonde on ufa ðe sæ fiohtandum ðegnum
 ceic fugit et ambulans supia maie pauentibus discipulis
 cuoð ic hit am nallað gæc ondræde fið ðæcatum gesolt wæs and
 at ego sum nolite timere xiiii A turbis quæsitus et
 mæðy gemocted uas enað wyicas mett seðe ne losas and hlaf of
 inuentus at operamini cibum qui non perit et panem de
 heofnum so cuoc gescalla hlif midang hlaf lifes hinc cuoð
 eælis uerum dicit daic utam mundo xv Panem uite se dicit
 and ða gelefendo on him eft wæccende þæt he uere on ðæm hlaetmæste dæg
 et credentes in se resuscitatum in nouissimo die.

§ 286. 3 *The Glosses of the Durham Ritual.—Rituale
 Ecclesie Dunhelmensis.*

1145. c 10 *Rituale Ecclesie Dunhelmensis*—*Hæ sunt capitula in Latania
Majore, þæt is, on fifta dæges*

- 1 { *ðas evocð driht' ȝmhwunfað woegas heru' and bihaldað and*
Hæc dicit Dominus, circuite vias Hierusalem, et aspice et
giscwæað and soecað in placgword and on placwum and ȝmoeton
considerate, et quere, in plateis ejus an inveniat
ȝic woci doend dom and soecende lȝf and misend ic
virum facientem judicium et querentem fidem et propitius
boni huius
ero ejus
- 2 { *stondað ol' woegas and giscwæð and ȝiſiagnað of seclum aldum*
Stare super vias et videte et interrogate de semitis antiquis
hwocle sic woeg god and ȝeongað on ðær and ȝi ȝmoetað coelmisse
quæ sit via bona, et ambulate in ea, et invenietis refugium
sawlum urwum
animabus vestris
- 3 { *alles heigies god Isrl' godo doað woegas wocio and rædo ivr'*
Exercituum Deus Israel, bonas facite vias vestias et stadia vestia,
and ic bya ivl mī in stove dssw on eorde þe ic salde faedrum
et habitabo vobiscum in loco isto in terra quam dedi patribus
urum fro worlde and w' worlde
vestris a seculo et usque in seculum
- 1 { *god ðv ðe [dæg] giscwædas from nachte dedo vssa from ðiostia*
Deus, qui diem discimus a nocte actus nostros a tenebrarum
giscwæd miste þatte symle ða ðe hælgu aron ðencendo in ðinum
distingue caligine ut semper quæ sancta sunt meditantes, in tua
symhinga leht ve lifa ð
jugiter luce vivamus per D'
2. { *ȝefeðoneȝwunco ȝadoe ve driht' haelga faedr allm' ece god*
Gratias agimus, Domine, sancte pater omnipotens æterne Deus,
v ðe vsig oferdoene nachtes rume to moigenheum tidum ðe hlaede
qui nos, transacto noctis spatio, ad matutinas horas perducere
ȝmoedvmad ar veð bid' þatte ðv ȝefe vs [dæg] ðeosne bvtan synne
dignatus es, quesumus, ut dones nobis diem hunc sine peccato
of færa oð þat to efenne ðe gode ȝeafu eft ve brenga
transire quatenus ad vesperum tibi Deo gratias referamus,
ð
per Dominum.

§ 287. 4. *The Ruthwell Runes*.—The inscription in Anglo-Saxon Runic letters, on the Ruthwell Cross, is thus deciphered and translated by Mr. Kemble:—

	mik		me.
Ruknæ kynnigk		The powerful King,	
Hlfunæs hlafard,		The Lord of Heaven,	
Hælda ic ne dæistæ		I dared not hold.	

* *Rituale Ecclesie Dunhelmensis*, published by the Surtees Society, pp 36, 37.

Bismerede ungkot men,	They reviled us two,
Bā ætgæd[1]e,	Both together,
Ik (n)riðbæc[h] bist(e)me(d)	I stamed with the pledge of came

geredæ	prepared
Hine gauaeldæ	Himself spake
Estig, ða he walde	Bemignantly, when he would
An galgu gistiða	Go up upon the cross,
Modig forc	Courageously before
Men,	Men

Mid stralum giwundæd	Wounded with shafts,
Alegdun hæ hæne,	They laid him down.
Lumwæigne.	Limb-weary
Gastodum him	They stood by him.

Krist wæs on rôdi,	Christ was on cross
Hweðre ther fûsæ	Lo! there with speed
Fearnan cwomu	From afar came
Æðsile ti lenum	Nobles to him in misery
Ic that al bih (eôld)	I that all beheld

sæ (
Ic w(x)s m(d) gal(h)gu	I was with the cross
Æ () rod
lin	

§ 288. So much for our materials for the Northumbrian dialect of the Anglo-Saxon, at least for the most unexceptionable portion of them. The characteristics they supply are as follows:—

1. The article is *þe* rather than *se*; and *þio* rather than *seo*, &c. In the Modern English *the* is used without respect to either gender or case. There is a tendency to this in the Northumbrian. Again—the use of *they*, &c., instead of *hi*, *hem*, *heora*, as the plural forms of *he* and *heo*, sets in earlier in Northumbrian than in Wessex.

2, 3 The *-n*, or *-an*, both in the oblique cases and in the Nominative Plural, is dropped. Sometimes the termination is *-u*, as *witgu* = W. S., *witegan* = *prophets*. Sometimes it is *-o*, as *ego* = W. S., *eagan* = *eyes*. Generally, however, it is *-a* or *-e*, as

NORTH	W. S.	ENGLISH
hearta	heartan	hearts
earthe	earthan	earth's
nome	numan	names.

- 4 The *-n* of the Infinitives is similarly dropped

NORTH	W S	ENGLISH
cuoetha	cweðan	say
mgeonga	ingangan	enter

5 The first person singular of the present indicative ends (1) in *-u*, as *ic getreow-u*, *ic cleop-u*, *ic sel-u*, *ic ondred-u*, *ic ageld-u*, *ic getimbr-u* = *I believe*, *I call*, *I give*, *I dread*, *I pay*, *I build*—(2) in *-o*; as *ic sitt-o*, *ic drinc-o*, *ic fett-o*, *ic wuldung-o*, = *I sit*, *I drink*, *I fight*, *I glorify*

6. The second person singular ends in *-s*, rather than *-st*.

7 The plural termination was *-s*. This form, however, was not universal. It is in the imperative mood where we find it most generally, and where it is retained the longest. Elsewhere the form in *þ* is found besides

8. The plural of *am*, *art*, *is*, *is*

NORTHUMBRIAN		WEST-SAXON
<i>wi aen</i>	} as opposed to	<i>wi syndon</i>
<i>gi aen</i>		<i>gi syndon</i>
<i>hi aen</i>		<i>hi syndon</i>

9 In the participles the W. S. prefixes *ge-*, the Northumbrian often omits it

§ 289. Upon these *differentiae* we may remark—

1. That the use of *þe* and *þio*, as opposed to *se* and *seo*, is Frisian. Not that the Frisians discarded *se* and *seo* altogether. On the contrary they used them freely. They used them, however, only as Demonstratives in the strict sense of the term. They used them where the Greeks used οὗτος. Meanwhile, where the Greeks used ὁ and ἡ, the Frisians used *the* and *thyu*. On the other hand the tendency towards the undeclined *þe* is a tendency towards the modern English.

2, 3. The omission of the *-n* in the inflection of nouns is also Frisian.

4. So is that of the *-n* in the infinitive mood.

FRISIAN	WEST-SAXON	ENGLISH
<i>mak-a</i>	<i>maei-an</i>	<i>make</i>
<i>lei-a</i>	<i>lai-an</i>	<i>learn</i>
<i>bærn-a</i>	<i>bærn-an</i>	<i>burn</i>

5. The termination in *-u* for the first person singular is Old Saxon

6. So is that of the second person in *-s*, rather than *-st*.

7. The plural in *-s* is, at the present time, provincial in the

North of England. In Scotland it belonged to the literary dialect. It appears in the works of James I. throughout.

8. The forms *aren* approach the modern English; meanwhile, the Old Frisian forms are *wi send*, *I send*, *hja send*.

§ 290. Which of the two divisions of the A. S. give us the older form of language? No general answer can be given. Thus—

1. Supposing that the *-s* in *se* and *seo* represent an original *þ*, the Northumbrian forms (*þe* and *þio*) are the older. The origin, however, of the *se* is doubtful.

2, 3, 4 Of the forms in *-n* and *-a*, the West Saxon are the older

5, 6. On the other hand, the antiquity is in favour of the Northumbrian verbs in *-u*, and *-o*.

7. Of the plurals, however, the West Saxon *þ* is the older.

8. So is the *ge-*, of the participles.

All this means that different portions of a language change at different rates, and that general assertions as to the greater antiquity of one dialect over another are unsafe.

Another caution arises out of the preceding notices; a caution against drawing over-hasty conclusions from partial details.

1 To a certain extent the Northumbrian approaches the standard English of our modern literature, *e. g.* in the use of *the* and *are*. Yet it would be unsafe to say that it is out of the Northumbrian that the literary English has grown.

2. To a certain extent the Northumbrian approaches the Old Saxon.

3. To a certain extent the Northumbrian approaches the Old Norse; and as the points in common to the two languages have commanded no little attention, they will be considered somewhat fully—not, however, until some miscellaneous additions to the preceding notices have been made.

§ 291 Many investigators increase the list of Northumbrian characteristics by going into the differences of phonesis. Doing this, they are enabled to state that the West-Saxon has a tendency, wanting in the Northumbrian, to place the sound of the *y* in *yet* (written *e*) before certain vowels—Thus, the West-Saxon *eali*, pronounced *yali*, is contrasted with the Northumbrian *all*. This seems a real difference; and one which no one should overlook. Again—*thorh* and *leht*, as contrasted with the W. S. *theorh* and *leoht*, give us appreciable differences of sound. So does *thoede* = W. S. *theoda*. In words, however, like

NORTH	W S
<i>Deg</i>	contrasted with { <i>dæg</i> day <i>ƿæt</i> vessel.
<i>Fet</i>	

the difference of pronunciation is, by no means, so clear as the difference of spelling.

Again—until I know exactly how to sound the W. S. *ē* as opposed to the Northumbrian *oe*, I must suspend my judgment as to the import of such a table as the following.—

NORTH	W S	ENGLISH
boen	bén	<i>prayer</i>
boec	béc	<i>books</i>
coelan	célan	<i>cool</i>
doeman	dóman	<i>deem</i>
foedan	fédan	<i>feed</i>
spœd	spéd	<i>speed</i>
sweet	swet	<i>sweet</i>
woenan	wénan	<i>ween</i>

upon which all that can be said is, that the West-Saxon *looks* most like the modern English. The orthography of the Ruthwell Runes is not the orthography of the Glosses.

§ 292. Many investigators increase the list of Northumbrian *compositions* by the two following fragments; the first of which is known as Wanley's *Fragment of Ceadmon*, the second as the *The Death-Bed Verses* of Beda

The Anglo-Saxon monk Ceadmon was born at Whitby in Northumberland. Yet the form in which his great work has come down to us is *West-Saxon*. This has engendered the notion that the original has been re-cast, and lost, with the exception of the following fragment printed by Wanley from a note at the end of the Moore MS., and by Hickes from Wheloc's Edition of Alfred's Translation of Beda's *Historia Ecclesiastica*, 4-24.*

Nu scylun hergan	* Nu we sceolan herigea	Now we should praise
Hefæn ricea uard,	Heofon-rices weard,	The heaven - kingdom's
		preserver,
Metudæs mæcti,	Metodes mihte,	The might of the Creator,
End his modgðanc	And his móðgethanc	And his mood-thought
Uerc uuldor fader,	Weia wuldor fæder,	The glory-father of works,
Sue he nundra gihwæs,	Swa he wuldres gelhwæs,	As he, of wonders, each
Eci drihtin,	Ecé drihten,	Eternal Lord,
Ora stelðæ	Ord onstealde	Originally established.
He ærist scopæ,	He ærest scóp,	He eist shaped,
Elda barnum	Eorðan bearnum,	For earth's banis,

* Collated with the original Moore MS of Beda in the University Library, by H Bradshaw, Esq, King's College.

Heben til hrofe,	Heofen to ȝeofs,	Heaven to roof,
Haleg scepen	Hālg scyppend	Holy shaper.
Tha middun-geard,	Dā middangeard,	Then mid-earth,
Moneyrnas uard	Moneyrnas weard	Mankind's home,
Eci dyetn,	Ece drihten	Eternal Lord
Æfter tade,	Æfter teode,	After formed,
Frum foldu	Frum foldan	For the homes of men,
Fica allmectig	Fica almihtig	Lord Almighty

The Death-Bed Verses of Beda are from a MS at St. Gallen.

Foie the neidfaerae,	Before the necessary journey,
Naemg unuht,	No one becomes
Thoc-snottura	Wiser of thought
Than him thaif sio	Than him need be,
To ymbhycganne,	To consider,
Aei his huongae	Before his departure,
Huaet, his gastac,	What, for his spirit,
Godacs aethra yflaes,	Of good or evil,
Æfter doothdage	After death-day
Doemud uneortheae	Shall be doomed

It is not safe, however, to say more than that the orthography is other than West-Saxon.

§ 293 The same applies to the Cotton MS (Vespasian, A 1) of a Latin Psalter, with an interlinear gloss in Anglo-Saxon: of which the Latin element is referred to the seventh, the Angle to the ninth, century. It is this from which the words of § 291 are taken; and, doubtless, the orthography is other than the standard West-Saxon. (1) The plurals end in *-u*. (2) The second persons singular in *-s*. (3) Its past participles omit the initial *-ge*. Thus:

PSALTER	IN W S	ENGLISH
herod	gcherod	<i>praised</i>
bledsad	geblotsod	<i>blessed</i>
soth	gesoght	<i>sought</i>

4 Its personal pronouns are *mec*, *thee*, *usie*, *cowic*, rather than *me*, *the*, *us*, *cow*, as in West-Saxon.

Are there sufficient reasons for making it Northumbrian? Good investigators have made it so. Meanwhile let it be noted that the infinitive ends in *-n*, not in *a*.

PSALMUS XLII

1	{	doem	mec	god	and	to-scad	intangan	minne	of	ȝeode
	{	Judica	me	Deus	et	discerne	causam	meam	de	gente
		nolt	haligre	fior	mon	un-rehtun	and	facnum	ge-neie	me
		non	sancta	ab	homine	iniquo	et	doloso	eripe	me

- 2 { for-ðon ðu earð god min and stiengu min for-hwon me
 { Quia tu es Deus meus et fortitudo mea quare me
 { on-weg a-ðrife ðu and for-hwon un-rot ic m-ga ðonne swenceð mee
 reppulsti et quare tūstis incedo dum adhlgit me
 se feond
 inimicus
- 3 { on-send leht ðin and soð-foetnusse ðine hie mee ge-lædon
 { Emitte lucem tuam et veritatem tuam ipsa me deduxerunt
 and to-ge-læddon in munte ðæm halgan ðinum and in ge-telde
 et adduxerunt in monte sancto tuo et in tabernaculo
 ðinum
 tuo
- 4 { ic in-gaa to wi-bebe godes to gode se go-blisseað iuguðe mine
 { Introibo ad altare Dei ad Deum qui lactificat juventutem meam
 { ic ondetto ðe in cūtan god god min for-hwon un-rot earðu sawul
- 5 { Confitebor tibi in cythara Deus Deus meus Quare tūstis es anima
 { min and for-hwon ge-dioefes me
 mea et quare contubas me
- 6 { ge-hyt in god for-ðon ic-ondettu him haelu ondwlæotan mimes
 { Speia in Deum quoniam confitebor illi salutare vultus mei
 and god min
 et Deus meus

PSALMUS XLIII.

- 2 { god mid earum um we ge-heidun and fediast uic segdun
 { Deus auribus nostris audivimus et patres nostri annuntiaverunt
 us weic ðæt wicende ðu earð in degum heara and in dægum
 nobis Opus quod operatus es in diebus eorum et in diebus
 ðam alldum
 antiquis
- 3 { honda ðine ðeode to-stenceð and ðu ge-plantades hie ðu swentes
 { Manus tua gentes disperdet et plantasti eos adflixisti
 folc and on-weg a-drife hie
 populos et expulisti eos
- 4 { na-les soð-lice in sweorde his ge-sittað eorðan and earm
 { Nec enim in gladio suo possidebunt terram et brachium
 heara ne ge-hæleð hie
 eorum non salvabit eos
 ah sie swiðre din and earm ðin and in-lihtas ondwlæotan ðines
 Sed dextera tua et brachium tuum et illuminatio vultus tui
 for-ðon ge-hæade ðe in him
 quoniam complacent tibi in illis
- 5 { ðu earð se ilca cyning min and god min ðu on-bude haelu
 { Tu es ipse rex meus et Deus meus qui mandas salutem Jacob
- 6 { in ðe fiond ure we windwrað and in noman ðinum we for-hyegað
 { In te inimicos nostros ventilavimus et in nomine tuo spernemus
 a-risende in us
 insurgentes in uos
- 7 { na-les soð-lice in bogan minum ic ge-nyhto and sword min ne ge-
 { Non enim aicu meo sperabo et gladius meus non sal-
 hæleð me
 vabit me

- 8 { *ſu ge-freades soð-lice usic of ðæm swencendum usic and ða ða usic*
Salvasti enim nos ex adfligentibus nos et eos quinos
ſiedon ſu ge-steaðulaðes
oderunt confudisti
- 9 { *in gode we lioð here allne deg and in noman dnum weondettað in*
In Deo laudabimur tota die et in nomine duo confitebimur in
weorulde
sacula

§ 294. The question concerning the Norse elements in the Northumbrian forms of speech requires notice. Let the date of the Ritual be A D 970—as it probably is. Let the Psalter be older than the Ritual as certain opinions make it—opinions which the present writer objects to, believing them to be founded on an undue assumption. Let the Psalter be Northumbrian—as, with the exception of its infinitives ending in *-an*, it is. Let the infinitives ending in *-a* of the Gospels, the Ritual, and the Ruthwell Runes, be looked upon as Danish rather than Frisian by one critic, and as Frisian rather than Danish by another. What follows? Even this—that the advocate of the Danish doctrine has a strong case in his favour, when he looks at the dates of the Danish invasions, for he may say that if the Northumbrian peculiarities were Frisian, they would have existed from the first; whereas, being Norse, we miss them at the beginning, but find them at the end, of the Danish period. Such is the suggestion of Mr. Garnett, who, after remarking that the termination in *-a* was Norse, and that the *older* text of the Psalter failed to exhibit it, commits himself to the opinion that it may be the result of an intermixture with the Northmen. Mr. H. Coleridge makes this a definite argument against the Frisian hypothesis. Where, however, is the evidence that the Psalter, in respect to *place*, is Northumbrian in the way that *Rituale*, &c., are?

“The most important peculiarity in which the Durham Evangeles and Ritual differ from the Psalter is the form of the infinitive mood in verbs. This, in the Durham books, is, with the exception of one verb, *beán, esse*, invariably formed in *a*, not in *an*, the usual form in all the other Anglo-Saxon dialects. Now this is also a peculiarity of the Friesic, and of the Old Norse, and is found in no other Germanic tongue, it is then an interesting inquiry whether the one or the other of these tongues is the origin of this peculiarity; whether, in short, it belongs to the Old, the original Friesic, form which prevailed in the fifth, sixth, and seventh centuries, or whether it is owing to Norse influence, acting in the ninth and tenth, through the establishment of Danish invaders and a Danish dynasty in the countries north of the Humber”
 —KEMBLE, *Phil. Trans* No. 35.

§ 295. Let the Danish question, however, be tried on its own merits According to Mr Garnett—speaking from information given him by a friend familiar with the MS.—the Danish words *by*=*town* or *village*, and *at*, the prefix to the Norse infinitive (just as *to*³ is in English) occur once or twice in the Durham Gospels. That this is something in favour of a Danish influence is clear On the other hand—

1. Harewood, the locality for the Rushworth Glosses, is scarcely on typical Danish ground—at least as measured by the occurrence of village names in *-by*.

2. Neither is Durham—the locality, real or supposed, of the Gospels and Ritual.

3 I do not say that these are very cogent objections Still, they are objections.

§ 296 There is another fact against the forms in *-a*. A well-known inscription at Aldborough has two words which are Danish, but the first is a Proper Name, *Ulph*, and proves no more than such names as Thorold or Oim in the reign of Henry II.—long after the last man who spoke Danish in England had breathed his last The other is *honom*, a truly Danish form The inscription runs

Ulph het ærean for *honom* and Gunthara saula
Ulph bid this year for him, and Gunthar's soul.

Nevertheless, the form *ærean* is *not* Danish but Anglo-Saxon. It may be granted, however, that the inscription is a mixed one. Be it so. It still teaches us that the change from *-an* to *-a* in the infinitive mood is not the first change effected by Danish influences. Meanwhile, on the other hand, it is safe to say that of the two great Norse characteristics, the postpositive article, and the middle voice in *-sc*, *-st*, or *-s*, there is no trace whatever from Caithness to Beachy Head.

CHAPTER V.

DIALECTS OF THE ANGLO-SAXON.—EAST ANGLIAN —MERCIAN

§ 297. BOTH the following specimens of the East-Anglian of Suffolk are from Thorpe's *Analecta Anglo-Saxonica* —

* *To* is not wholly absent in Norse.—*Saa brutte aa krasse w Fjellan te sjaa ut*=*So steep and sharp, is the rock to look at*

§ 298.

The Will of a Lady, from the Parts about Bury St. Edmunds.

Ic Luba, eaðmod Godes ðiwen, ðas forewodenan gód and ðas elmessan gesetle and gefestne ob minem eifelande at Mundlingham ðem hñne to Cristes ilican and ic bidde, and an Godes libgendes naman bebiade, ðem men ðe ðis cand and ðis orbe hebbe et Mundlingham, ðet he ðas god forðleste oð wianalde ende So man se ðis healdan wille, and lestan ðet ic beboden hebbe an ðisem gewite, se him geseald and gehcaldan sio huabenlice bledsung, se his ferweine oððe lic agcle, se him seald and gehcalden helle-wite, bute he to fulre bote geccean wille Gode and mannum — *Vene ualete*

In English

I Luba, humble handmaid of God, settle and fasten the aforesaid goods and alms of my heritage-in-land at Mundlingham to the sisterhood in Christ's Church, and I order, and in the name of the living God enjoin, the men who hold this land and this heritage at Mundlingham, that they hold the goods until the world's end The man who will hold this and continue that which I have ordered in the writing, be him given and continued, the heavenly blessing Who refuses or neglects it be to him given and continued, the pain of hell, unless he will pay the penalty in full to God and man — *Bene Talete*

§ 299

The Legend of St. Edmund a Homily

Sum swyðe ðaered munuc com soðan ofer see, from Sæmcte Benedictes stowe, on Æþelrædes dagum kynges, to Dunstane archel, þeom geara wipam þe he forðeide, and sum munuc halte Abbo þa wudon heo on spece, oððet Dunstan ichte be Sancto Eadmund, swa swa Eadmundes swyrd-boæ hit æhte Æþelstan kyng, þaða Dunstan geunc mon was, and þe sweord-boæ was forealdod mon Ða sette ðe munuc alle þas gerecednysse on anc boc, and oft, þaða ðeo boc com to us, binnon feawum gearum, þa awende we hit on Englse, swa swa hit he æfter stont þe munuc þa Abbo, binnon twam gearum, wende him to mynstie, and wearð þa to albhode iset on þam ylean mynstie

Eadmund, þe æadigæ East-Englæ kyng, was snoter and wurðful, and wuðode symle mid æpele ðeawum þone Almihtigæ God He was eadmod and ipunge, and swa amæde þuhtwunede, þet he nolde bugen to bismearfulle leahtæ, ne on nane healf he ne ahydde his þeawæs, ac wæs symle mundig þære soðan lufe Gyf þu cart to heofod-nien iset, ne ahæle þu ðe, ac heo betweox monnum swa swa an mon of him He was cystig wadlum and wydowum, swa swa fader, and mid wæl-willendnesse wissode his sole simle to rihtwisnesse, and þam reðan styrede and iselgehece lofode Hit ilamp þa æt nyxtan, þet ða Demisce leode fæden mid secyhere, heigende and sleande wide geond lond swa swa heora wune is On þam sloten wæron ða fyrstan heafodmen, Hinguar and Hufba, geaulæhte þuht deofel, and heo on Norðhumbielond gelendon mid æscum, and wæsten þet lond and ða leoden oðlogen Ða wende Hinguar east mid his scyppum, and Hufba belaf on Norðhumbielande, wunnenum sage mid wælcrownesse Hinguar bucom þu to East-Englum rowende, on þam geare þe Ælfred æþelmg an and twentig geara was, þe þe Wast Seaxene kyng syððan wearð mare And þe fore-sæde Hinguar ferlice, swa swa wulf, to

londe bistalcode, and þe leodæ sloh, weræs and wif, and þa unwittige child, and to bysmere tucode þa bilewite cistene He sende þa syððan sona to þam kyngre beohtice ærende, þæt he bugon sceolde to his momædenc, gif he his feores rohte Ðe ærendracæ com þa to Eadmundre kyngre, and Hinguaræs ærende him heardlice ahead "Hinguar me kyng, kene and sigefost on se and on londe, hæfð felæ peodæ iwæld, and com nu mid ferde fealce her to lande, þæt he her winter-selt mid his werode habbe Nu hæf he þe darlen þine diglan gold-hoides, and þine ældrynæ stieon hælice wið hine, þæt þu heo his under-kyng, gif þu cwyce beon wult, forþan ðe ðu næfst þa mihte, þæt ðu mage him wið-standæn" Hwæt þa, Eadmund kyng clypede ænne biscop, þe him þa hendest wæs, and wið hine smæde, hu he þam iean Hinguarre beistan sceolde þa forhtede þe biscop for þam fælice gehmpe, and for þæs kynges life, and cwæð, þæt him iæd þuhte, þæt he to þam abuge, þe Hinguar him bead Ða swyrowde þe kyng, and biseah to þære eorðan, and cwæð þa æt nyhstan kynelece him to "Eala, þu biscop, to bysmere beoð itawode þæs carman lond leodæ, and me nu leofre were, þæt ic on feohte feolle, wið þam ðe min folc moste heore eardes brucæn" And þe biscop cwæð "Eala, þu leofre kyng, þin folc hþ ofslagen, and þu næfst þonne fultume, þæt ðu feohten mage, and þas flotmen cunæð, and ðe ewine bindæþ, buten þu mid fleame þine feore buge, oððe þu ðe swa buge þæt ðu buge to him" Ða cwæð Eadmund kyng, swa swa he ful kene wæs "þæs ic wiluge and wiscæ mid mode, þæt ic ane ne bileafe æfter mine leofum þægnum, þe on heore beddum wuodon, mid bearnum and wifum, fealce ofslagene from þisse flotmonnum Næs me næfre iwunche þæt ic wiohte fleames, ac ic wolde swiðor swelton, gif ic þyfte, for mine agene eardre, and þe Almhigæ God wat þæt ic nulle bugan from his bigenum æfre, ne from his soðan lufe, swelte ic libbe ic" After þissum wordum, he wende to þam ærendracan ðe Hinguar to him sende, and sæde him unforht "Witodlice þu wære nu weorðe slages, ac ic nelle fylæn mine clæne handan on þine fule blode, forþan ðe ic folge Criste, þe us swa biðnode, ac ic bliþelice wyll beon ofslagen þurh eow, gif hit God forscenawæð Fare nu swiðe iape, and sæge þine reþum lafoide, ne buhþ nefie Eadmund Hinguar on life, hæfene heietogen, buten he to Hælende Criste ærest mid geleafan on þisse lond buge" Ða wende þe erendracæ heardlice awæg, and mette þone wælcrowan Hinguarre mid alle his ferde fute to Eadmundre, and sæde þam alcasum hu him iandswæred wæs Hinguar bead þa mid bealde þam scyp-heie, and þæt heo þæs kynges anes alle cepan sceoldon, þe his here forscah, and hine sone bindæn.

Hwæt þa, Eadmund kyng, mid þam ðe Hinguar com, stod innan his halle, þæs Hælendes myndig, and aweap his wepnæ, wolde efenlæcen Cristes gebisnunge, þe forbead Petrum mid wæpnum to feohten wið þa wælcrowan Iudeiscan Hwæt þa, þa arleasan Eadmundum bundon, and bysmoreden hylice, and beoten mid sahlum, and swa syððan læddon þonne ileaffulne kyng to ane eorðfestum treowe, and tegdon hine ðæto, mid hearde bendum, and hine eft swuncon longlice mid swipum, and he symle clypode, betweox þam swineglum, mid soþan ileafan, to Hælende Criste, and þa hæfene þa, for his ileafe, wuodon þa swyðe yne, forþan ðe he clypode Crist him to fultume heo seytæn þa mid gaelocum him togeanes, oððet he all wæs biwet mid heore scotungum, swylce yles burstæ, swa swa Sebastianus wæs Ða iseah Hinguar, þe arleas flotmon, þæt þe æðele kyng nolde Criste wiðsacen, ac mid andræde ileafe hine æfre clypode, hæf hine þa bihæfdian, and þa hæfenan swa dyden Betweox þam þe he clypode to Criste þa-gyt, þa tugon þa hæfene þone halgan to slæge, and, mid

ane swenego, slogon him of þæt hæfod, and sawlæ siðode isælg to Criste þær was sum mon gehende ihealden, þu h Gode behydd þam hæpenum, þe ðis ihealde all, and hit æft sæde, swa swa we sæcgæð hit hei. Hwæt þa, æc flothere feorðe þa oft to scipe, and behyddon þæt heafod þæs halgan Eadmundes on þam æccum bremlum, þæt hit bibuiged ne wuðe þa æfter fyrste, syððan heo isæne wæron, com þæt lond-fole to, þe þær to lafe þa was, þær heora lafordes he buton heafde þa læg, and wudon swiðe saig for his slæge on mode, and lue þæt heo næfdon þæt heafod to þam bodige þa sæde ðe scaawere, þe hit ær iseah, þæt þa flotmen hæfdon þæt heafod mid heom, and was him þuht, swa swa hit was ful soð, þæt heo lydden þæt heafod on þam holte For-hwæga heo eoden þa endemes alle to þam wude, sæcende gehwær, geond þwefas and brymclas, gif heo mihten mæten þæt heafod Was eac mycel wonder þæt an wulf was isend, þu h Godes willunge, to biwængenne þæt heafod, wið þa oðre deor, ofer dæg and niht Heo eoden ða sæcende and cleopigende, swa swa hit rwunehc is þæt ða þe on wude gaþ oft "Hwær eart þu nu, geiefa?" And him andswyrde þæt heafod "Hei, hei, her" And swa ilome clypode andswarigende, oððet heo alle bi-comen, þu h þa clypunge, him to þa læg þe giægæ wulf þe bewiste þæt heafod, ant mid hus twam fotum hæfde þæt heafod bi-clypped, giedig and hungng and for Gode ne dyrste, þæs hæfdes onbuigen, ac heold hit wið deor Ða wudon heo ofwundioden þæs wulfes hoðhædene and þæt halge heafod ham foroden mid heom, þankende þam Almihtigan alie his wundæ Ac þe wulf fologede forð mid þam heafde, oððet heo on tune comen, swylce he tome wære, and wende aft syððan to wude ongean Ða londleodan þa syððan lægdan þæt heafod to þam halge bodige, and buigdon, swa swa heo liltuocost mihten on swylce iædinge, and cyrc æardon on-uppon him Eft þa on fyrste, æfter fele gearc, þa ðeo hergung aswac, and sib wearð igsfen þam iswænte folce, þa fengon heo togadere, and wiohten ane enee wuðlice þam halgan, æt his buigene, æt þam bod-huse þær he ibuiged was Heo wolden þa ferian, mid folchece wuðmente, þone halgan lichame, and lægen mine þære enecan þa was mycel wundor þæt he was all hal, swylce he ewre wære, mid clænum lichame, and his sweora was ihæled, þe ær forslagen was, and was swulce an solcene ðiod embe his sweoraen, monnum to swutelunge hu he ofslagen was Eac swylce wundæ, þe ða wælcowan hæpenæn, mid ilome scotunge, on hus lice makedon, wæron ihealedc, þu h ðone heofonlice God, and he hþ swa ansund oð þysne andweardne dæg, abidende æristes and þæs een wuldres His lichame us eyð, þe hið unforismolsnød, þæt he buton forligte her on woulde leofode, and mid clæne life to Criste siðode Sum wyrdew a wunode, Oswyn ihatan, on gebodum and fæstenum, monige gear syððan þeo walde cfsæn ælce gear þone sont, and hus nægles ceorian syfohce mid lude, and on searpe healdon to haligdome on weofode þa wuðode þæt lond-fole mid ileafan þone sont to wuðmente Ða comen on sumne sæl unsælg þeofas cahta, on ane nihte, to þam arwuðæn halgan, and wolden stolon þa madmæs þe men ðider biohton, and cunneðon mid cætte hu heo in-cumen mihte Sum sloh mid slæge swyðe þa hæpsan, sum heo mid fyle feolodon abutan, sum eac undeidealf þa dūe mid spade, sum heo mid læddæ wolden unlcæan þæt æh-þyl, ac heo swuncon on yðel, and earmlice feidon, swa þæt þe halga war heom wunderlice bont, ælene swa he stod stantigende mid tole, þæt heora nan ne mihte þæt moþ gefremman, ne heo þeowan styren, ac heo stoden swa oð margen Men þa ðæs wundredon, hu þa weargas hangedon, sum uppon læddæ, sum leat to dælle, and æle on hus weorce was feste ibunden Ilco wudon þa ibrohite to þam bi-scope alle, and he het heom alion on heagum

gealgun alle, ac he næs na mundað hu þe mildheorte God clypode þuð his witegan þas word þe he stodaþ. *Eos qui ducuntur ad montem euere ne cesses, "Da þe mon læt to deaþe alys ut symle"* And eac þa halgan canones ihadedon forbeodaþ, ge biscopum ge preostum, to beonne embe ðeofas, forþan þe hit ne buaþ þam ðe beoþ iceorene Gode to þenigenne, þæt heo þwailecen seylon on amiges monnes deaþe, gi heo beoþ drihtnes þegnæs. Eft þa ða ðeodrað biscop, syððan he his bec sceawode, he reowsode mid geomerunge, þæt he swa iafne dom sette þam unsæligum þeofum, and hit hisaegede afe, oð his lifes ende, and þa leode beað georne þæt heo him mid fæstæn fullreo ðeo dagæs, biddende þone Almihtigan God, þæt he him arian sceolde.

On þam londe wæs sum mon Leoistan ihalen, rice for worulde, unwittig for Gode, þe iad to þam halgan mid iceteric swyðe, and het him ætowan oillice swyðe þone halgæ sont, hwæðe he isund wære, ac swa iate swa he iseah þes sontes lichame, ða awedde he sonæ, and wælieowlice grymetede, and eamlice endode yfelum deaþe. *Dis is þam ilc þe halga papa Gregorius, on his isetnesse [awrat] be þam halgum Laurentium, þe lið on Rome-buig, ðæt men wolden sceawian hu he læge, ac God heom gestylde, swa þæt ðær swulton on ðære sceawunge æne seofe mon ætgædere, þa swike þi oðre to sceawenne ðone marty mid mennisce dwylde.* Fela wundia we ihædon on folclice spæce bi þam halgan Eadmundum, þe we hea nyllaþ on wite setten, ac heom wat gehwa. On þissum halgum is swutel, ant on swyleum oðrum, þæt God Almihtig mæg þone mon arian æt on domes dæge ansundne of eorðan, þe þe healt Eadmundne halne lichame, oð ðene myclan dæg, þeah ðe he on moldæn come. Weoðe wære ðeo stow for þam wuðfullan halgum, þæt hie mon wæl wuðode and wælegode mid clæne Godes þeowum to Cristes ðeowdome, forþan ðe þe halgæ is inæria þone men magon asmean. Nis Angol biðaled Drihtnes halgene, forþam on Englæ londe hegæþ swylce halgan, swylce þes halgæ king, and Chutbeitus þe eadigæ, and Æpeldiþ on Elg, and eac hie swuster, ansund on lichame, geleafæn to triumunge. Beoð eac fela oðre on Angel-cynne, þe fela wundia wucaþ, swa swa hit wide is cyð, ðan Almihtigan to lofe, þe he on lyfden. Crist sylf swyteleþ monnum, þuð his mæren halgan, þæt he is Ælmihtig God, þe makæþ swylce wundia, þeah þe ða earman Indiscæn hine allunga wriðsocon, forþan þe heo beoð awarigede, swa swa heo wiseton heom sylfum. Ne beoð nane wundia wrihte æt heore buigene, forþam þe heo ne gelyfaþ on þone lyfigenden Crist, ac Crist swutelæþ monnum hwær þe gode ileafæ is, þenne he swylce wundia wucaþ, þuð his halgan, wide geond þas eorðan, þam beo wuldor and lof a mid his Heofenlice Fæder.

§ 300. Of the Mercian forms of speech, in a definite and certain form, we know even less than is known of the East Anglian. In the first place, the area of Mercia was of inordinate size. In the next, it was bounded on every side by some other district—in this unlike the other three, all of which, on one side at least, were bounded by the sea. This makes transitional forms all the more likely to have been numerous. On the west only was a broad line of demarcation possible; this being possible, because, on the west, the British of Wales came in strong contrast with it. On the north, however, what stood between the northernmost Mercian, and the southernmost Northumbrian?

On the south, what between the southernmost Mercian, and the northernmost West Saxon? On the east, what between the East-Anglian on one side, and the Mercian on another? Add to this the likelihood of there having been within the boundaries of Mercia forms of speech, which differed from each other as much as certain Mercian forms differed from certain others which were other than Mercian. All this, it is true, is nothing more than what our preliminary observations have prepared us for. At the same time it may truly be said that all such difficulties as are involved in the classification of dialects in general appear, on the question of the Mercian, in an extreme form. Had we some definite and undoubted specimen of some central dialect (say Northamptonshire), which was known to represent the language of the district as it was *spoken*, and also known either to have taken no modifications from any literary language, or (what is the same thing) to have represented some written vernacular of the time and place—our position would have been different. But anything of this kind is wholly wanting. Of anything that is Mercian at all, we have but little, and that little is, to a great extent, West Saxon also. In saying this, I say little more than what Mr Kemble himself admits, and I refer more especially to that great scholar, because it is he who has, in more places than one, most especially committed himself to the doctrine that differences between the different* forms of the Anglo-Saxon were so great as to engender, in many cases, mutually unintelligibility. Yet, he also says that the language of the *Vercellæ Codex* was Mercian (being, probably, written near Peterboro'), and also that it was essentially the same as the Anglo-Saxon of *Beowulf*, *Ælfic*, and the works attributed to Alfred—the word *attributed* being his, a word which I quote, because, in it, my own doubts as to the so-called compositions of that great king being, *in language at least*, the works of some later writer find support. *Mutatis mutandis*, the same applies to the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, which, again, is given to Peterboro', and which, again, even in the most aberrant MSS., is essentially West Saxon.

§ 301. So are the following extracts from the *Codex Diplomaticus*, which are given simply because they, at one and the same time, bear the names of Mercian kings, and show how little in the way of real differences of dialect such names carry with them. Every one of the peculiarities can be matched in

pure West Saxon MSS. The first two, are supposed to represent the western, the last, the eastern extremities of Mercia.

Oxfordshire or Gloucestershire

AETHELRED, A D 713 (No 90)

Thus synd þa land gemara æt Eastunc þe Æthelbald cyning myrena geboc-
ade Utele bisceope into sancte marian Ærest of Tureanwyllas heafde and-
lang stæte on Cynelesstan on Mylenweg þonne andlang hryeges on Heort-
ford þanen andlang stæames on Burulford on foron þa spelstowe þonan on
Tureandene on Scofenwyllas midde-weardan of þam wyllan to Balesbeorge
sutan þonne on Cealeweallas þonan eft on Tureandene andlang eft on Turean-
wyllas heafod Ðis wæs gedon þy gearc þe wæs agæn from Cristes lasescnesso
DCCXLIII on þam cynehame þe is gecyged Beawe.

Worcestershire

AETHILBALD, A D 743-745 (No 95)

In tisses dryhtnes noman hælendes cristes ic aedelbald myrena cneow wær
beden from þæm afullan bisceope mihede paeti ic him ðlæfde and hus þæm
hælgan huede alle nedbade tuégia secopa þe þærtó lmpende beoð þe ic him
forgete þa þæm eadgan petre apostola aldremen in þæm mynstre þeowiað paet
is gesetad in hucca maegre in þære stowe þe mon hæteð weogernacester þære
bene swýðe ðfulre geðafunge ic wæs sylende for mine sawle læccedome to
ðon paet for minum synnum hi heo geaðmedden paette heo wæren gelomlice
þingearas wæð drihten swýðe lustfullice þa forgefende ic him ðlæfde alle nedbade
tuégia secopa þa þe þær abaedde beoð from þæm nedbaderum in lundentines
hýðe ond naefie ic ne mine lastweardas né ða nédbaderas geðustlaccen þat heo
hit onwenden oððe þon wægaen gif heo þat nýllen sýn heo þonne ámansu-
made from ðælnæomenege liceman and blades usses drihtnes hælendes cristes
and from alre néweste geleafuþa sýn heo áscæadene and ásynðiade nymðe heo
hit hea mid þingonge bóte gebete

IC Aethelbald cneow mine ágene sylene tynmende hic heo wrat Mihed
bisceop þære hulegan iode tæcen he heion gefaestnode Ingwald bisceop geðæ-
fiende he hit wrat Wilfrid bisceop he hit wiat Alda cinges gefera he hit
wiat

ABBA, A D 835 (No 235.)

IC abba geroefa cyðe and witan hate hu min willa is þæt mon ymb min
æife gedoe æfter minū dæge ærest ymb min lond þe ic hæbbe and me god lah
and ic æt minū hlaforðū begret is min willa gif me god bearnes unnan wille
ðæt hit foe to londe æfter me and his bruce mid minū gemeccan and siotðan
swæ forð min cynn ða hwile þe god wille ðæt ðeara æng sie þe londes weotie
sie and land gehaldan cunne gif me ðonne gifese sie ðæt ic bearn begeotan
ne mege þonne is min willa þæt hit hæbbe min wif ða hwile ðe hia hit mid
clennisse gehaldan wile and min broðra alchhere hre fultume and þæt lond hie
nytt gedoe . and him man selle an half swulung an crollan dene to habbanne
and to brucanne wifran ðe he ðy geornliocar hre ðearfa bega and bewiotige
and mon selle him to ðem londe min oxan and ii cy and i scepa and
æne horn gif min wif ðonne hia nýlle mid clennisse swæ gehaldan and
hure hofie sie oðer hemed to nomanne ðonne foen mine megas to ðem londe
and hure agefen hie agen . gif hie ðonne hofie sie . ynstor to gárganne

oðða suð to farranne ðonne agefen hie twægen mine megas alchhere and ætcel-
wold hne twa ðusenda and fon him to ðem londe and agefe mon to him ge
l eawa and v cy foie hie and mon selle to folcanstane in mid minū hie
x oxan and x cy . and c cawa and c swina and hugum ansundian
D pend wæððan ðe min wif hei be nuge innganges swæ mid minū lice swæ
sioððan yfearian dogie swæ hwædeð swæ hie hiofe sie gif hugan ðonne oððe
hlafoið þæt nylle hie mynstrelifes geunnan oðða hie siolf nylle and hie
oðer ðing hiofe sie þonne agefe mon ten hund pend inn mid minū hie me
wið legeistowe and hugum ansundian fif hund pend fore mine sawle and ic
bidde and becode swælc monn se ðæt min lond hebbe ðæt he ælce geie agefe
ðem hugum æt folcanstane l ambia maltes and vi ambia gruta and iii
wega spices and ceses and cccc hlafa and an hūðr and vi scep and
swælc monn seðe to minum æife foe ðonne gedele he ælcum mæssepreoste bin-
nan cent mancus goldes and ælcum godes ðiowe pend and to sancte petre min
wærgeld twa ðusenda and fifeoðomund foe to minū sweoide and agefe ðei æt
feoweð ðusenda and him mon foigefe ðei an ðeotenchund pending and gif
mine broðar æifeweald gestuonon ðe londes weoiðe sie þonne ann ic ðem
londes . gif hie ne gestuonon oðða him sylfū alles hwæt sele æfter laora dege
ann ic his fifeoðomunde gif he ðonne lifes bið Gif him elles hwæt sæleð
ðonne ann ic his minna swæstað suna swælcuma se lit geðian wile and him
gifceðe bið and gif þæt geselo þæt min cynn to ðan clane gewite ðæt ðei ðeara
nan ne sie ðe londes weoiðe sie þonne foe se hlafoið to and ða hugon æt Kistes
crican and hit minnum gaste nytt gedoen an ðas iedenne ic hit biðeðe selle ðe
so monn seðe Kistes crican hlafoið sie so min and minna eifewearda fores-
preoca and mundboia and an his hlafoiðdome we hian moten

Lincolnshire

CEOLRED, A.D. 852 (No. 267)

In nomine patris et filii et spiritus sancti! Cēolred abbad and ða hugan on
Medeshāmstede sellað Wulfode ðet land æt Sempingaham in ðas gerednusse,
ðet he hit hæbbe and bruce suā lange suā he life and anum æifeunnaðe æfter
him, and ælce geie sextig foðra wuda tó æa'm hām on Hoinan æa'm wuda, and
tuelf foðer grafan and sex foðun geiða End forðon we him ðis land sellað,
ðet he ðes landes fulne fiodóm bigete in æ'ce, æifeweardnusse æt Sempingahām
and æt Shoforda, and bruce ðeie crican lafað on Medeshamstede ðes landes
æt Shoforda, and Wulfred ðes on Sempingaham and he geselle eghwelce geie
tó Medeshamstede tua tunnan fulle luhies aloð, and tuā sleg-neat, and sex
hund lafes and ten mittan wælsces alo, and ðeie crican lafoide geselle egh-
welce géie hois and þittig seillinga, and hne ānc niht gefeormige fiftenc mitta
luhtes aloð, fif mitta welsces aloð, fiftenc sestias lōces and hi siōn symle in
allum here life eadmōde and heāsume and undepeōðde, and ofer heie tuega
dæg ðonne agefe hió ðet land into ðeie crican tó Medeshāmstede mid fifeo-
dōme, and we him ðis sellað mid folda and mid wuda and mid fenne sua ðer
tó belmpeð Sið heora tuuēge dæg āgān sie, ðonne agefe mon tuenti hida
hugum tó bióðland and ŷūe crican lafaðe vii hida land æt Forde and æt
Cegle, and he ðes feormied tuuege hida landes æt Læheotum his eifeweorda
sweolcum swelce him ðonne gesibbast wæ'ie, and ðæt wēre ful fiedes cynne ge
fie swa suā ðet ðeie into ðeie crican Anno uero dominicæ incarnationis
DCCC LII indictione v

§ 302. If charters like the foregoing, which bear the names

of Mercian Kings, and, so doing, carry us back to the days of the so-called Heptarchy, tell us thus little, still less must be expected from those which, bearing the name of some later king, merely refer to lands within the old Mercian boundaries. Such are certain charters (comparatively numerous in the reign of Edward the Confessor) which apply to the counties, Worcester, Gloucester, Oxford, Stafford, Norfolk, Suffolk, Essex, Hertford, and the Isle of Ely. One of Canute's (already noticed) applies to Northamptonshire. One, containing the name *Kirkeby*, is from some portion of the Danish area; yet the two compounds in *-son* and *-by* are all the Danish elements they contain.

§ 303 Any *differentia* between the *East Saxon*, the *Middle Saxon* and the *South Saxon* of *Essex*, *Middlesex*, and *Sussex*, I have failed to find. I have not, however, looked over-closely, expecting but little. That *Sussex* should notably differ from *Hants*, *Middlesex* and *Hertfordshire* from *Beiks*, and *Essex* from *Suffolk* is unlikely. Neither are any great differences to be expected in *Kent*: though this is a point upon which I speak with caution.

Of the *West Saxon* the most extreme locality for which we have a document is *Exeter*. which gives the bequest of Bishop Leofric already alluded to, viz. the bequest of his library, containing what is now called the *Codex Exoniensis*, to the library of the cathedral. Between this and the documents from the extreme East there is but little difference.

CHAPTER VI.

PROVINCIAL FORMS OF SPEECH AT PRESENT EXISTING — SOUTHERN GROUP.

§ 304. THE complement to the study of the dialects of the Anglo-Saxon period is that of the several provincial forms of speech of the present day. the chief questions connected with them being the following:—

1 The extent to which they show signs of influences other than Angle. How far, for instance, is *Kent* *Jute*, *Lincolnshire* *Danish*, *Cornwall* *Kelt*, &c.?

2 Their difference at different dates.

3. The origin of the standard, or literary English.

In ignoring the ordinary distinction between the *Angles*

and the Saxons, the present writer deviates widely from his predecessors. Nevertheless, he, by no means, denies that the application of the two terms to different parts of England may be a fact, which, if rightly interpreted, is of considerable importance. That the words *Sux-sex*, *Es-sex*, *Middle-sex*, and *Wes-sex*, mean *something* in the way of *Saxon-hood* is transparently evident. This, however, was not a difference between the Saxons and the Angles, but a difference of the conditions under which the two names were imposed.

In the Saxon parts of England the influence of the populations who called the *Angles* by the name of *Saxon* was sufficient to give currency to the latter term, as opposed to the former; whereas, in the Angle parts of England this influence was insufficient to affect the currency and predominance of the native name. The populations who called the Angles by the name of Saxons were three—(1) the original Britons, (2) the Romans, and (3) the Franks—supposing these latter to have been (as they are by hypothesis) early occupants of Kent.

Hence the term *Saxon* as applied to our dialects is *convenient*; its convenience making the use of it excusable, and the division of our dialects called *Saxon* is, to a certain extent, *natural*, though not on account of the reasons usually exhibited.

§ 305 The extent to which the standard or classical Anglo-Saxon was Saxon rather than Angle has already been noticed. It may be added that it was *West Saxon* rather than either *South Saxon*, or *East Saxon*, *Middle Saxon* or *Kentish*.

But, it by no means follows that because the *West Saxon* was the form of speech most under cultivation in the times anterior to the Norman Conquest, it should also be the form of speech in which the English writers after that event most especially expressed themselves. On the contrary, the literary development of the southern dialects may have ceased with the Saxon line of kings, whereas the reaction against the Anglo-Norman may have begun with some other dialect.

§ 306. Let—

<i>Saxon</i>	=	<i>Southern</i> ,
<i>Northumbrian</i>	=	<i>Northern</i> ,
<i>East Anglian</i>	=	<i>Eastern</i> ,
<i>Mercian</i>	=	<i>Midland</i> ,

and we get a convenient and not very inaccurate nomenclature; a nomenclature, however, which is merely provisional. Should

it lead, however, to any undue identifications between the political and philological divisions, it must be abandoned.

The more extreme forms of speech are those of the North and South: *i e* Devonshire and Northumberland differ from each other more than Suffolk and Hereford, or Norfolk and Shropshire. The Midland counties exhibit the *minimum* amount of peculiarities. This helps us in our classification. Whatever else they may do, the Northern, Southern, and Eastern group cannot directly graduate into each other.

§ 307. The Midland dialects make the nearest approach to the literary English. This is only another way of saying that the literary English more especially represents the Midland dialects. That the peasants and country people of these parts partake of the nature of literary men more than those elsewhere, and that they speak more purely on the strength of a better education, is an untenable position. The truer view is, that the English of our standard authors originated in the Midland counties. Hence it is the literature that resembles the dialects rather than the dialects that emulate the literature.

The particular district where the difference between the language of the educated portion of the community and the masses is at its *minimum*, I believe, to be the parts between St Neots in Huntingdonshire and Stamford on the borders of Lincoln, Rutland, and Northamptonshire. This gives the county of Huntingdon as a centre. The same—though in a less degree—applies to the southern, eastern, and south-eastern parts of Lincolnshire, Rutland, the north and north-western parts of Cambridge, the western parts of Essex, Herts, Beds, Northamptonshire, and part of Bucks. In Warwickshire and Oxfordshire, a similar representation of the literary English prevails—though a change from the typical forms of Huntingdon and Bedford is apparent.

§ 308. It is scarcely necessary to inform the reader, that each and all of the specimens consisting of the second chapter of the Song of Solomon are from what may be called the Bonaparte Collection; this meaning that H.I.H., the Prince L. L. Bonaparte, having chosen the said song for a uniform specimen, and having got able coadjutors in the reduction of it to the following dialects, has published the series from which the extracts have been made. To save a number of individual references, I give the details of the authorship in the following list.—

1. Somersetshire T Spencer Baynes, L I. B
- 2 East Devon G. P R Pulman,
- 3 Devonshire Henry Bard, Author of Nathan Hogg's Letters and Poems, in the same dialect
- 4 Cornwall Anonymous 1859
- 5 Dorsetshire The Rev W Baines. 1859
- 6 North Wilts E Kite, F S A 1860
- 7 Sussex Mark Anthony Lower, M A
- 8 Cumberland John Rayson
- 9 Central Cumberland William Dickenson 1859
- 10 Westmoreland Rev John Rickardson, M A, Head Master of Appleby School
- 11 Lancashire Parts about Bolton, James Taylor Staton 1859
- 12 North Lancashire James Phizackerby 1860
- 13 Craven H A Littledale. 1859
- 14 North Riding The Author of a Glossary of Yorkshire Words and Phrases, collected in Wharfedale, and the neighbourhood
- 15 West Riding of Yorkshire Charles Rogers, Author of The Bannockburn, Annual and Pogmoo Olmenac
- 16 Durham
- 17 Newcastle J G Foister
- 18 Ditto J P Robson, Author of Bards of the Tyne.
- 19 Northumberland Ditto
- 20 Lowland Scotch. Anonymous 1860
- 21 Ditto J P Robson 1860
- 22 Norfolk Gillet

§ 309 For the Saxon group, Somersetshire is convenient as a commencement. It gives us a strongly-marked, but not an extreme dialect.

Mr. Guy and the Robbers

1.
Mr Guy war a gennelman
O' Huntsfull, well knawn
As a grazier, a huch one,
Wi' lons o' huz awn

2
A oten went to Lunnun
Hiz cattle ver ta zill,
All the hosses that a rawd
Niver mmded hadge or hill

3
A war afeard o' naw one,
A niver made huz will,
Like wather vawk, avaur a went
Hiz cattle ver ta zill

4.
One time a'd bin to Lunnun,
An zawld huz cattle well,
A brought awa a power o' gawld,
As I've a hued tell

5
As late at night a rawd along,
All dicoo a unket ood,
A ooman rauze vrom off tha groun,
An night avaur en stood.

6
She look'd za pitus Mr Guy
At once his hoss's pace
Stapt short, a wonderin how, at night,
She com'd in jitch a place

7

A little trunk war in her hon,
 Sho zim'd vun gwon wi chile,
 Sho ax'd en nif a'd take ei up
 And coi er a voo nule

8

Mr Guy, a man o' veelin
 Voi a ooman in distress,
 Then took ei up behind en,
 A cood'n do na less

9

A coi'd er trunk avaur en,
 And by huz belt o' leather
 A bid her hawld vast, on tha lawd,
 Athout much tak, together

10

Not vur tha went avaur she gid
 A whizzle loud an long,
 Which Mr Guy thawt very strange,
 Er voice too zim'd za strong,

11

She'd lost er dog, she zed, an than
 Anothei whizzle blaw'd,
 That storted Mi Guy, a stapt
 Hiz hoss upon tha lawd

12

"Goo on," zed sho, bit Mi Guy
 Zum ing begmn'd ta fear,
 Voi voices lauze upon tha wine,
 An zim'd a comm near

13

Again tha lawd along, again
 She whizzled, Mi Guy
 Whipt out his knife an cut tha belt,
 Than push'd er off, ver why?

14

Tha ooman he took up behine,
 Begummers, war a man;
 Tha rubbers zaw ad lad ther plots
 Our grazier to tiepan

15

I shall not stap to tell what zed
 Tha man in ooman's clawse,
 Bit he an all o'm just behine
 Wai what you mid suppauze.

16

Tha cust, tha swau, tha dicaten'd too,
 An ater Mi Guy
 Tha gallop'd all, twai nivor tha neai,
 Hiz hoss along did vly

17

Auver downs, dnoo dales, awa a went,
 Twar da-light now amawst,
 Till at an inn a stapt, at last,
 Ta thenk what he'd a lost

18

A lost! why nothun—but huz belt
 A zummet more ad gam'd,
 Thuc little trunk a coi'd awa,
 It gawld galore * contain'd

19

Nif Mr Guy weic huch avaur,
 A now wai hucher still,
 Tha plunder o' tha highwamen
 Hiz coffers went ta vill

20

In safety Mr Guy lawd wlum,
 A oten tawld tha stoiry,
 Ta meet wi' jitch a rig myzel,
 I shoold'n soce be zorry.

Song of Solomon, c 2

- 1 I be th' rawze o' Zhaion, an' th' hilly o' th' vallies
- 2 Loik th' hilly among tharns, zo be moi love among th' darters
- 3 Loik th' yapple-tree among th' trees o' th' 'ood, zo be moi beloved among th' zons I zot down oonder huz zhadder wi' great deloight, an' huz viut was zweet t' moi teast
- 4 A' vetched me ta th' veasting-houze, an' huz vlag awver me wer love.
- 5 Stay me wi' vlagons, comfort me wi' yapples, vor I be zeek o' love

* This is not a provincial, but a slang, word It is *galore* = enough, and is Gaelic.

- 6 Hiz lef han' be oonder moi yead, an' hiz ight han' do embiace me
 7 I tell ee, O danteis o' Jerausalem, by th' laws an' by th' hunds o' th' viel,
 dont'e stuu up nor weak moi love till a' do pleaz
 8 Th' voice o' moi belovad' Zee ' a' cawmt'h leapin upon th' mountains,
 skeepin upon th' hills
 9 Moi belovad be loik a raw oi a yoong hart zee ' a' stand'th behind our
 wall, a' look'th voath at th' winders, zhowing hiszel droo th' lattice
 10 Moi belovad spoak, an' zed unto me, Rise up, moi love, moi vair wuon,
 an' koom away
 11 Foi, zee, th' winter be past, th' iain be awwei an' a-gone
 12 Th' vlowers be koom voath vrom th' mould, th' buds be a-zingin all
 oun, an' th' coom o' th' tuttle-dooove be a-yeaid in th' lan'
 13 Th' vig-tee putteth voath hei green vigs, an' th' vines wi' th' tender
 greaps do gie a good zmill Arise, moi love, moi vai wuon, an' koom away
 14 O moi doove, that beast in th' clefs o' th' rocks, in th' zeciet pleazes o'
 th' steais, let me zee thoi veace, let me year thoi voice, voi zweat be thoi
 voice, an' thoi veace be koomly
 15 Teak uz th' voxes, th' litle voxes, that spwile th' vines, voi our vines
 have tender greaps
 16 Moi belovad be moime, an' I be hiz, a' readeth amang th' lilies
 17 Till th' day do break, an' th' zhadderis vlee away, turn, moi belovad, an'
 be theow loik a raw oi a yoong hart on th' mountains o' Bethel

For a fuller notice of the Somersetshire dialect the reader is referred to a small work by Spencer Baynes, wherein many of the details of its phonesis are exhibited. The general character of this is well known. It consists in an inordinate predominance of the sonant mutes, and in some remarkable transpositions. The diphthongal character given to the Somersetshire vowels is by no means characteristic. It is found in more than half the counties in England, but the transpositions are important. They are those of the Anglo-Saxon of Wessex; and there is no part of England where the coincidence between the old and the new forms is so close. In A. S. *arn* = *ran*, in the present Somersetshue, *urn* = *run*, just as *harch* = *rich*

That the Somersetshire dialect is the lineal descendant of the West Saxon, is the express opinion of the author of the treatise just quoted. It is the opinion of Dr. Giles, who is a native of the county, as well as an acute and independent thinker, and a good Anglo-Saxon scholar. Still, the evidence of natives is always to be taken with caution. Every patriotic provincial claims the greatest amount of Anglo-Saxon for his own dialect. In the case of Somersetshire, however, I believe the claim is as valid as any such claims ever are. Notwithstanding the fact of Berkshire being the county which gave birth to Alfred, I maintain that it was to the language of the parts about Sherbourne

and the borders of Dorset and Somerset, rather than the parts about Wantage, that the literary West Saxon bore the most resemblance.

The Somersetshire for *I*, which is (in full) *utchy*, and which is becoming obsolete, is remarkable. It is a southern form, from which we get, by contraction, *ch*'.

The West Somerset dialect approaches that of—

§ 310.

DEVONSHIRE

According to Pulman, Kilminster, near Axminster, is the spot where the sound of the French *eu* is first found; viz. the *oo* in *moon*, *spoon* = the Scotch *ui*, foreign to Somersetshire, and foreign to Cornwall.

To milky = *to milk*, and *they cryath* = *to cry*. It is, however, the older people who use them. With the rising generation they are going out. The prefix *a*, as in *agone*, is commoner.

EAST DEVON.

Song of Solomon, c 2

- 1 Ai'm th' rawse o' Shaon, an' th' hly o' th' volleys
- 2 Laike th' hly among thouns ez my leuve among th' mād'ns
- 3 Laike th' opple-tree 'mong other timber 's mai beleuv'd 'mong th' youngsteis. Ai was glad ta zit under ez sheude, an' zwit was ez freit in my meuth
- 4 He broat me to th' feyst-chummer, an' leuve, ver a flag, did hang auver me
- 5 Vill me wi' flaggins, pleyze me wi' opples, ver ai 'm leuve-zick
- 6 Ez left han's 'neath my head,—ez ight's roun' my waist
- 7 Ai bag'th 'ee, O māids o' Jerusalem, bai th' ices an' th' han's o' th' fiel' nit ta meuve nei ta wake my young-man till's a-maundid teue
- 8 Hear th' vaice o' my young-man! Leuke 'ee zee! A-com'th jumpin 'pon the mountins, an' hoppin' 'pon th' hills.
- 9 Mai young-man's laiike a deer or a young hayne. He stan'th behāine ou woll. He leuk'th voāth vrem th' kezment an' show'th 's zel' ta th' lattice
- 10 My young-man spawk teue me, zes he, Git up, my dear creytur, mai puty-wan, kum along.
- 11 Ver th' wenter, yeue zee, 's a-gone bai, th' wet taine 's a-pas'
- 12 Th' vloweis sprout'th vwoāth in th' grown',—th taine 's a kum'd roun' ver th' whis'ln' o' buds, an' th' claw o' th' culver's a-yid vur an' nūgh
- 13, Th' green vigs be vwoath-caum'd 'pon thei tree, an' kound grapes 'pon th' vaine sceynt'th the air. Kum along, then, mai swithort, mai puty-wan
14. Yeue, mai dove, that abaid'th in th' gaps o' th' rocks, th' bai-pānts o' th' stairs, shaw yer face, an' let's hear 'tis yer vaice. Ver yer vaice ez so swit an' yer face za geude-leukm'

15 Deu 'ee ketch us th' foxes, th' young foxes that spayl'th all th' vaines
Foi th' vaine's just in grape.

16 My young-man ez my awn, an' a' m' hee's He veed'th 'mong th'
lilies

17 Till th' gray o' th' murnin,' when th' naught vlee'th away; kum bock,
au, my leuve, an be laike a iaw ei young deer tap th' haigh heels o' Bether

Song of Solomon, c 2

1 I am tha rose uv Shaim, an tha lilly uv tha vallys

2 As tha lilly among thaimins, zo es ma luv among tha daters

3 As tha happie-tree among tha trees uv tha hood, zo es ma beluvid among
tha zins I zot down unde' es shadda way grat delite, an es vlew't was zwöet
ta ma taste

4 Ha biot ma ta tha bankitten houze, an es bannei auver ma was luv

5 Stay ma way vlaggins, komfit ma way happles, vur I am zick uv luv

6 Es lift han es unde' ma hard, an es ize han dith mbrace ma

7 I charge yu, Aw ye daters uv Jeiewslum, be tha io's, an be tha hines uv
tha vee-eld, thut ye stei nat up, nuu wake ma love, till ha plaize

8 Tha voice uv ma beluvid' behold, ha com'th laipin apin tha mowmtins,
skippin apin tha hills

9 Ma beluvid es like a io ur a yung hait behold, he stand'th behend our
wal, ha look'th voic at tha winders, shawin eszul dnoo tha lattice

10 Ma beluvid spauk, an zed on-too ma, Rise up, ma luv, ma van wan, an
kom away

11 Vuu, io, tha winter es past, tha iann es auver an gaun

12 Tha vlowers appear on tha 'aith, tha tune uv tha zingun uv bunds es
kom, an tha voice uv tha tuile es yeid in ou' lan

13 Tha vig-tree put'th voic hei green vigs, an tha vines way tha tender
greape gie a gude zmul Arise, ma luv, ma van wan, an kom away

14 Aw, ma duv, thut art in tha cliffs uv tha rocks, in tha zayent ple-aces
uv tha stairs, let ma zee thy countynunce, let ma yer thy voice, vur zwet es
thy voice, an thy countynunce es comly

15 Te-ake es tha voxes, that litt'l voxes, that spoil tha vines. vur our vines
hev tender gre-apes

16 Ma beluvid es mme, an I am hees he veed'th among tha lillys

17 Ontil tha day brik, an tha shadda's vlee away, tun, ma beluvid, an be
thou like a io, ui a yung hait apin tha mowmtins uv Bayther

A Devonshire Dialogue Mis Gwatkin Edition of 1832

RAB Zo, Bet, how is't? How do thy?—Where hast a'be thicka way?
Where dost come from?

BET. Gracious, Rab! you gush'd me I've a' be up to vicarige, to vet a
book vor Dame, and was looking to zee if there be any shows in en, when you
wisk'd over the stile, and galled me

RAB And dost thee look so like a double-rose, when thee art a' galled, Bet?
What dost thee gook thee head vor look up, wo't?

BET Be quiet let lone my hat, wol ye?

RAB What art tozing over the book vor?

BET Turning out the dog's ears.

RAB 'Ot is it—a story-book?

BET. I wish 'twas, I love story-books dearly, many hearts I've a' zat up when all the folks have a' be-a-bed, and a' rede till es have had a crick in the mid-dick, or a' burn'd my cep

RAB And dost love to rede stories about spirits and witches?

BET. I'll tell thee I was wan heart reding a story-book about spirts, that com'd and draw'd back the curtains at the bed's root (and there was the ghastly pictures o' em) The clock had beat wan, when an owl creech'd 'pon the top o' the chimley, and made my blood in cold I zum'd the cat zeed zum 'ot the door creaked, and the wind hudder'd in the chimley like thunder I prick'd up my ears, and presently, zum'ot, very humsone, went dump! dump! dump! I would a' goed my life vor a varden Up I sprung, drow'd down my candle, and doutet en, and hadn't a blunk o' fire to teen en again What could es do? I was afear'd to budge At last I took heart, and went up steais backward, that noit meit catch me by the heels I didn't unmay mysel vor the neat, nor teen'd my eyes, but healed up my head in the quilt, and my heart bumpt zo, ye could hear en, and zo I hed panking till peep o' day

RAB Poor Bet! why if a vlea had hopp'd into thy ear thee wot a' swoon'd

BET You may well enew laugh at me, but I can't help et, nor vorbear reding the books when I come athort 'em But I'll tell thee I've a' thort pon't zince, that the dump! dump! dump! that galled me zo, was noit else but our great dog diggin out his vleas against the dresser

RAB Like cnew I marvel that you, who ha' zo much indel and ouden wolk to do, can vend time vor reding, but then, it zeems, you rede when you ought to zleep

BET Why, you must know, Dame doesn't like I shu'd rede zich books, it be other lucket books us ha' vrom the Pason, and when us ha' done up our chowers, and 'tis candle-teeming, Measter takes hiszell to the alehouse, I take up my knitting, and Dame redes to me Good now es may ha' as many books vrom the Pason as us wol, he ne'er zarth her nay, and he hath a power o' em, that a' hath

§ 311 The Cornish of the following specimen is for the parts West and South of St Austell. In the northern part of the county the dialect approaches that of Devon

Song of Solomon, c 2

1. I'm th' rocase of Shaaron, and th' hly of th' valleys.
2. Like th' hly 'mong thorns, so es my love 'mong th' dafters
3. Like th' apple-tree 'mong th' trees of th' wud, so es my beloved 'mong th' sons I sot down onder hes shadda weth g'eat delight, and hes fruit woi sweet to my taaste
4. He bloft me to th' banqueting house, and hes banner ovver me woi love.
5. Stay me weth flagons, cumfuit me weth apples for I'm sick of love
6. Hes left hand es onder my head, and hes right hand do embiaace me
7. I chaarge 'ee, Aw you dafters of J'usalum, by th' roes, and by th' hunds of th' field, that you waan't steer up, nor 'waake my love, till he do plaise
8. The voice of my beloved! behowld, he do come lapin' pon the mount'ns, skippin' 'pon th' hills
9. My beloved es like a roe or a young hart behowld, he do staand behind our wale, he do luck founthe at th' windens, shawing hussel through th' lattice.

10 My beloved spok', and said to me, Rise up, my love, my feer waun, and come away

11 Foi, law, th' wenter es paast, th' ian es ovver and gone

12 Th' flowers do appeer 'pon th' eeith th' time of th' singin' of buds es come, and th' vooice of th' turtle es heerd in our land

13 The fig-tree do put foathe hes green figs, and th' vines weth th' tender graape do give a good smill Rise up, my love, my feer waun, and come away

14 Aw my dove, who art in th' vugs of th' rock, in th' saicet plaaces of the steears, lev us see thy faace, lev us heer thy vooice, foi sweet es thy vooice, and thy faace es putty

15 Catch foi us th' foxes, the litle foxes, what do spool th' vines foi our vines have got tender gaapes.

16 My beloved es mme, and I am hes he do feel 'mong th' likes

17 Ontil the day do break, and th' shaddas do fly away, turn, my beloved, and be like a roe or a young hart 'pon th' mount'ins of Bethel

In Cornwall the influence of the original Celtic is the chief point of investigation. As far as our present *data* go, it is inconsiderable—inconsiderable, at least, in respect to the vocables and inflections That it has affected the phonesis is likely. The materials, however, for the inquiry are of the scantiest

In Cornwall we reach our limit to the west, and (so doing) have to return to Somersetshire, leading, on the south, to Dorsetshire, and on the north to

§ 312.

GLOUCESTERSHIRE

George Rudler's Oven From Halliwell's Archæic and Provincial Dictionary

1

The stowns that built Geoige Rudler's Oven,
And thaay geum from the Bleakeney's quai,
And Geoige he wur a jolly old mon,
And his yead it graw'd above his yae.

2

One thing of Geoige Rudler I must commend,
And wur that not a notable theng?
He mead his biags avooie he died,
Woe any dice brotheis his zons z'hou'd zeng.

3

There's Dick the tieble and John the mean,
Let every mon zing in his awn pleece,
And Geoige he wur the elder brother,
And therevoore he would zing the beass.

4

Mine hostess's moid (and hei neaum 'twur Nell),
A pretty wench, and I lov'd hei well,
I lov'd hei well, good reazon why,
Because zhe lov'd my dog and I.

5

My dog is good to catch a hen,
 A duck or goose is vood for men,
 And where good company I spy,
 O thetther gwoes my dog and I

6

My mwother told I when I wur young,
 If I did vollow the strong beer pwoot,
 That drenk would pruv my auveidow,
 And meauk me wear a thread-bare cwoat

7

My dog has gotten zitch a tick,
 To visit moids when thauny be zick
 When thauny be zick and like to die,
 O thetther gwoes my dog and I

8

When I have drce zispences unde1 my thumb,
 O then I be welcome wherever I come,
 But when I have none, O then I pass by,
 'Tis poverty pearts good company

9

If I should die, as it may hap,
 My gcauve shall be unde1 the good yeal tap
 In vouled eams there wool us lie,
 Cheek by jowl, my dog and I

§ 313.

WORCESTERSHIRE.

The affinities of the Worcestershire dialect run southwards. The details, however, are obscure, inasmuch as we are not only without a sufficiency of *data* for the county itself, but are ill-provided with materials for North Gloucestershire and Warwickshire, the counties on its frontier. That the decidedly southwestern character of the Gloucester dialect, represented by *George Ridler's Oven*, becomes less as we move northwards and eastwards, is certain. Hence, the characteristics of Worcestershire, whatever they may be, are by no means very definite or strongly-marked.

Whether Worcester, Warwick, and Oxfordshire may be more properly thrown into the group which contains Northampton and Bucks, may be doubtful. It is only certain that it belongs to the group which contains Gloucestershire and Somersetshire, rather than to the group which contains Staffordshire and Derbyshire.

§ 314.

HEREFORDSHIRE

I connect Hereford with Worcester on the strength of its geographical relations rather than upon the strength of any accurate investigation

There is a good glossary of the Herefordshire; but no compositions in it. The oldest charters are, like those of Worcestershire, West Saxon

§ 315.

MONMOUTHSHIRE

In Monmouth, as in Cornwall, the Keltic element and the English come in immediate and recent contact. Of the details of its dialect I know nothing.

§ 316. If the place of Worcestershire be doubtful, still more so is that of *Warwickshire*, which is thoroughly equivocal, its dialect graduating into those of Worcester, Stafford, Oxford, Leicester, and Northampton, according to the frontier

§ 317.

DORSETSHIRE

A Letter from a Parish Clerk in Dorsetshire to an absent Vicar, in the Dialect of the County. From Poems on Several Occasions, formerly written by John Free, D.D. 8vo, London, 1757. From Halliwell's Archaic and Provincial Dictionary.

Measter, an't please you, I do send
Theaz letter to you as a friend,
Hoping you'll pardon the inditing
Becaz I am not us'd to writing,
And that you will not take unkind
A word or two from poor George Hind
For I am always in the way,
And needs must hear what people zay
First of the house they make a joke,
And zay the chummies never smoak
Now the occasion of these jests,
As I do think, were swallows' nests,
That chanced the other day to vaal
Into the parlour, zut and aal
Beside the people not a few,
Begin to munnin much at you,
For leaving of them in the lurch,
And letting strangers zeive the church,
Who are in haste to go agen,
Zo we ha'nt zang the Lord knows when

And for then preachings I do know,
 As well as moost, 'tis but zo, zo
 Zure if the call you had were right,
 You ne'er could thus your neighbours slight,
 But I do fear you've zet your aim on
 Naught in the world but vilthy mammon, &c

Song of Solomon, c 2

- 1 I be the rose o' Shaion, an' the hly o' the valleys
- 2 Lik' a hly wi' thorns, is my love among maidens
- 3 Lik' an apple-tice in wi' the trees o' the wood, is my love among sons I
 long'd vor his sheade, an' zot down, an his fruit wei vull sweet to my teaste
- 4 He brought me into the feast, an' his flag up above me wer love
- 5 Refresh me wi' ceakes, uphold me wi' apples vor I be a-pinen vor love
- 6 His left hand wei under my head, an' his right a-cast round me
- 7 I do waan ye, Jerusalem's da'ters, by the toes an' the hinds o' the vield,
 not to stu, not to weake up my love, till he'd like
- 8 The vaise o' my true-love! behold, he's a-comèn, a-leapen up on the
 mountains, a-skippen avvei the hills
- 9 My true-love is lik' a young roe or a hart he's a-standèn behind our wall,
 a-lookèn vwo'th vrom the wndois, a-shown out dloo the lattice.
- 10 My true-love he spoke, an' he call'd me, O rise up, my love, my lean
 maid, come away
- 11 Vor, lo, the winter is avvei, the ian's a-gone by
- 12 The flowers do show on the ground, the zong o' the buds is a-come, an'
 the coo o' the culver's a-heard in our land
- 13 The fig-tree do show his green figs, an' the vines out in blooth do smell
 sweet O rise up, my true-love, lean-maid, come away
- 14 O my love 's in the clefts o' the rocks, in the lewth o' the cliffs Let me
 look on your feace, let me hear 'tis your vaise, vor sweet is your vaise, an'
 comely your feace
- 15 O catch us the foxes, the young oones, a-spweilen the vines, vor the
 vines ha' neesh grapes
- 16 O my love is all mine, an' I be all his he's a-veedèn among the lilies
- 17 Till the day is a-broke, an' the sheades be a-vled, turn back, O my love,
 an' be lik' a roe or young hart on the mountains o' Bethel

For the full account of the Dorsetshire dialect, as well as for many beautiful compositions in it, see the Poems of the Rev. W. Barnes; according to whom it has a form of the infinitive mood, which may be called the *habitual*. *Can ye mow* = *can you mow in general?* *Can you mow this grass?*

Too much stress, however, must not be laid upon this, nor must the inference that the final vowel represents the *-an* of the Anglo-Saxon be drawn over-hastily. The same termination is to be found in the demonstrative pronouns in more than one district of the south-west; so that the Berkshire *theek* = *thalk* = *this* becomes *thecky*. The doctrine that *this* is an A. S. infinitive is, of course, untenable.

§ 318

WILLS

Old Banzo From Ahernan's Wiltshire Tales

Every body kneows owld Banzo, as wears his yead o' one zide One night a was coming whoame vrom market, and vell off's hos into the road, a was ~~so~~ drunk Some chaps coming by picked un up, and zeem' his yead was al o' one zide, they thought 'twas out o' jint, and began to pull 't into 'ts pleace agen, when the owld bwoy roa'd out, "Banz zo (*born so*), I tell 'e!" Zo a' was allus called owld Banzo ever a'terwards

*Devizes Advertiser, July 19, 1860**Rotn Ro, Vizes Green, 16 July*

MESTER EDDIUR,—ZUR,—I bys yei piaper wen I can stan the penne to pay vai un, and twix Capn Gladstwin's inkumtaks and zummit that heant al tames But I zeess, zur, evry now and agen as u pients leetle notes as voke rites ec bout zum graveanse ai nothei, and zoo I hopes u ull vmd a kannu zunnwhei for I to ha my zay about what I kalls a publik graveanse I means that thei nasty mess of carion allus a hangen up muost cluose to the ruod up yonder wei Mester Tugwels houns be kep Now, zur a lot o ded hosses' legs an ribs a totin in the zun, beant nice things for noobody to look at, and the stenk on em is wusser steel, and I promess ec, zur, that last Zatterday night as I cum whum from Pottein atter the day's work sich a puf come athert the ruod is putty wel made I cast my stummick therite, an thinks I, if this ere's only passin how mus it be vai they poor voke, messis Widdywinteren and the rest on em, as lives jis awvenite and cant never look out o winder nai uepen thur door wiout zeeing an smelling thease tunable mess, pu teklei wen the wind do cum up a leedle sowvestaid like, and I wundeis they beant ded puizend long avoie now I never dun nō'wuk nor nuthen vur Mester Tugwell, but I do nes a good naterd gennelmen, and I waund, zur, if a zeess thus, a'll have all put ute quiksticks Zoo no muore at presance vrom yer humbel zarvint,

A POOR WURKEN MAN.

ZUR,—I'd jist a dun and iade this here out to my nayber, and now he wants I to put down a noshin or 2 o'hush, a zes can be done venie wel in a P S, but I ickns we med sciach owe 2 wuld heds a putty wile avoie we vmes out wo that es Housemcier, Jim zes, zes he, spuose the collarei cums awver agen from Ingy ar Jaimmy ai Rooshy, vun zaaten zure a ud collai thay poor voke as leeves in zich vould an vust, and then gennelvoke ud been taaken to we about clanelmess and wiewashin and sich like, and Jim zes tha wei man sharp wi hes wu looman a tuuc bak about the pegsti and tatee-rines up closish to duoor like, but vaa hez pant he cant zee nar smell but as live pegs and tatee-parens is jist za mise as ded hosses and hapes o magets, and then he grould out zummit about zampcl better not parchum, and ef this, ees 2 long ye mid blame he Twix u and I, zur, I thinks Jim got out o bed lef lag avoie thes marnen, and nothen hant ben rite wee un all day zunce, but he dunno I be putten that down

Song of Solomon, c 2

- 1 I be th' rwoads o' Shaon, an' th' hilly o' th' valleys
- 2 As th' hilly among thairns, zo uz my love among th' moydens.
- 3 As th' apple-tree among th' trees o' th' wood, zo uz my beloved among

A A 2

th' zuns I zot down under huz sheade wi' gaut delight, an' huz frut wei' zweet to my teaste

4 A vol m' to th' banquetun-howse, an' huz slag auver m' wei' love

5 Stoy m' wi' wine, comfort m' wi' apples, voi I be zick o' love

6 Huz hit hond's under my yead, an' huz right hond do howld m'

7 I charges 'ee, aw ye darters o' Jerusalem, by th' roes an' by th' hunds o' th' veeld, that ye dwoul stu up, noi weake my love till a do like

8 Th' zound o' my beloved! Lo! a comes leppun upon th' mountains, skippun' upon th' hulls

9 My beloved uz lik a roe or a young hart behowld! a's a standun' behind ovr wall, a looks vwo'th at the wunders, sheavun' hussell drough th' lattus

10 My beloved spwoke, an' zed unto m', Rize up, my love, my four un, an' come awoady

11 Voi, loa, th' wnter uz past, th' ian uz auver an' gone

12 Th' flouers be zeed upon th' ca'th, th' tme o' th' zengun' o' birds uz come, an' th' naase o' th' turtle uz hee'd in ovr lond

13 Th' vig-tree puts vwo'th hui green vigs, an' th' vines wi' th' tender greape do gie a good smell Rize up, my love, my four un, an' come awoady

14 Aw my dove, as uz in th' crivices o' th' rock, in th' zeciet pleacen o' th' stans, let m' zee yer veace, let m' hne yer voice, voi zweet uz yer voice, an' yer veace uz comely

15 Teake us th' voxes, th' leetle voxes, as spwiles th' vines, voi upon ovr vines uz tender greapes

16. My beloved uz mme, an' I be hys'n, a do veed among th' lilies

17 Till th' day do break, an' th' sheades do vlee awoad, tun, my beloved, an' be lik a roe or a young hart upon th' mountains o' Bether

In the seventeenth century, the Somersetshire *ch* = *I* was to be found in Wiltshire: at least a note of Prince L. L. Bonaparte, on Kite's Song of Solomon, states that a scarce work—entitled, *The King and Queenes Entertainment at Richmond, after their Departure from Oxford In a Masque presented by the Most Illustrious Prince, Prince Charles, Sept 12, 1636. Naturam imitare licet facile nonnullis, videatur haud est. Oxford. Printed by Leonard Lichfield, MDCXXXVI.*—gives “*chave a million for, Chaul not thought,*” &c. In p. 5 it is expressly stated that, “because most of the interlocutors were Wiltshire men, that country dialect was chosen.”

§ 319. In an artificial classification of our southern dialects, we may take the Hampshire Avon as a boundary, in which case we have Somersetshire, Dorsetshire, Devonshire and Cornwall with Western Wiltshire leading into Gloucestershire on the one side, and Hants, Sussex, Surrey, Kent, and the eastern part of Wiltshire leading into Berkshire on the other, the characteristics of the western group being far more decided and prominent than those of the eastern—the *maximum* being in Devonshire, the *minimum* in Berks or Surrey.

Such a classification, however, is artificial, inasmuch as it separates Western Hants from Eastern Dorset, and divides Wiltshire. The natural group would take Wiltshire as a centre, around which would be arranged Hants, Dorset, Somerset, Gloucester, and Berks, with Cornwall and Kent as the extremities.

§ 320 Of the details of the Hampshire dialect I can say little. I can only say that its affinities are exactly those that the geographical position suggests. On the north it passes into the Wiltshire, and on the west into the Dorsetshire, forms of speech.

ISLE OF WIGHT.

From Hullucell

JAN What's got there yon?

WILL A blastnashun staddlebob cialun about in the namnut bag

JAN Staddlebob! where ded'st leyain to caal'n by that neyam?

WILL Why, what shoud e caal'n? tes the right neyam, esn ut?

JAN Right neyam, no! why, ye gut zote vool, casn't zee tes a dumbledore?

WILL I knows tes, but vun aal that staddlebobs zo right a neyam voin as dumbledore ez

JAN Come, I'll be deyand if I doant laay thee a quant o' that

WILL Done! and I'll ax meyastun to-night when I goos whooam, beet how't wool

WILL I zay, Jan! I axed meyastur about that aie last night.

JAN Well! what did 'ur zay?

WILL Why a zed one neyam ez jest zo vittum voin as tother, and he louz a ben canld staddlebob ever zunce the island was vust meyad

JAN The devvul a hav! if that's the kecas I spooas I lost the quant

WILL That thee hast, lucky! and we'll goo down to Arveiton to the Red Lion and dink un ater we done work

§ 321. It is the Adur, according to Mr M A Lower, that divides the East-Sussex dialect from the West-Sussex, the latter of which approaches the Hampshire.

SUSSEX

Song of Solomon, c 2

1. I be de roaz of Sharon, an de lily of de valleys
2. Lik de lily among thorns, so is my love among de dâhters
3. Lik de appul-tree among de trees of de ood, so is my beloved among de sons
I set down under his shadder wud gut delight, an his fruit was sweet to my taust
4. He brung me to the banquetin-house, and his gut fleg over me was love
5. Stay me wud dinkin-pots, comfort me wud appuls, for I be sick wud love.
6. His left han under my head, an his right han clapses oun me

7 I charge ye, O ye dahters of Jerusalem, by de roes an by de hands of de fil, dat de doant rouse up, nor wake my love tull such time as he likes

8 De voice of my beloved, looker, he comes a-lippin upon de mountains, a-skippin upon de hills

9 My love is like a roe or a young hart, looker, he stans behind our wall, he looks out of de windors a-shown of husselt through the lattice.

10 My beloved spoke, an said to me Git up, my love, my fan un, an come away

11. For looker, de winter is past, de iam is over an gone,

12 De flowers show demselves on de anth, de time for de singin of buds is come, an de voice of de ood-pigeont is heard in ou land

13 De fig-tace puts foorth hei green figs, an de vines wud de tender graup give a good smoll Git up, my love, my fan un, an come away

14 O my dove, dat's in de cliffs of de rock, in de saciet plaeces of de stans let me see you faus, let me hear yer voice, for sweet is yer voice an ver faus is comely

15. Ketch us de foxes, dem liddle foxes what spule de vines for our vines have got tender graups

16. My beloved is mme, an I be he's he feeds among de liles

17 Tull de dee breaks, an de shadderis goo away, tun my beloved, an be ye lik a roe or a young hart pon de mountains of Bethel.

§ 322. In Kent we are remarkably deficient in data; the only specimens I know being found in the short poem from which the following is an extract.

Dick and Sal, Dover, 1830

1

An up we got into de boat.

But Sal begun ta maunder,

Fer fare de string, when we gun swing,

Should break an come asunder

2

But Glover sed "It is sa tuff

'Tud bear a dozen men,"

And when we thought we'd swung enough,

He took us down again.

3

And den he looked at me and sed,

"It seems ta please your wife,"

Sal gunn d and sed she never had

Sudge tun in all hei life

Still less do we know of the dialects or sub-dialects of Surrey, except that, when they lie on the boundaries of the county, they graduate into those of Berkshire, Sussex, and Kent. I am informed by my friend Mr Durrant Cooper, that up to the very edge of London, viz. in Wimbledon and Wandsworth,

the dialect of the native labourers is notably provincial, and also that it is essentially the same as that of Sussex. This coincides with what Mr Kemble observed near Chertsey, where he resided, viz that the dialect *there* was, also, notably provincial, notwithstanding the near neighbourhood of the capital. He instanced, I remember, *inter alia*, the word *lutton* = *church-yard*.

§ 323. Grouping by type, I think that the Kent, Surrey, and Sussex dialects may conveniently be arranged round some central point near the junction of the three counties. That the extremes graduate into one another, is beyond doubt. Even single characteristics are found pretty constant over the whole area. The prefixed sound of *w*, which stands out with such prominence in Somersetshire and Gloucestershire, may be heard in Kent, in Sussex, and (on Box Hill, if not elsewhere) even within sight of St Paul's. Indeed, the West Saxon character of the Old Kentish of the *Ayenbyrte* of Inwit,* written A.D. 1340, has long commanded attention.

Nou ich wille þet ye ywite hou hit is ywent
 þet þis boc is ywite mid Engliſs of Kent.
 þis boc ymad uoi lewede men
 Voi uader and uor moder and uor oþer ken
 Hem uoi to berze vram alle manyere zen
 þet inne hanc mwytte ne bleve no voui wen.
 Huo as God is his name yzed,
 þet þis boc made
 God him yeue þet bread of angles of heuene
 And þeto his ied,
 And onderuonge his zaulc
 Huanne þet he is dyad

Amen

Ymende þet þis boc is uolued ine the eue of the holy aspostles Symond and Judas of ane brothei of þe cloystre of Sauynt Austin of Canteberri, ine þe yeare of oure Lhoides beirunge, 1340

§ 324 That the use of the term *Saxon* involved in the present classification partakes of the nature of a misnomer is clear. It includes Kent, and excludes Essex. Middlesex, as far as the metropolis allows it to exhibit any provincialisms at all, seems to go with Essex. At any rate, the confusion between *v* and *w*, which is so often laid to the charge of the Londoners, is a decided East Anglian characteristic

* Edited for the Roxburghe Club, by the Rev J. Stevenson

§ 325

BERKSHIRE.

The provincialisms of Berkshire are, by no means, very decided. It may be added that they are those of the counties of the frontier. On the east and south these give a *minimum* of characteristics. In this, however, we see little except the impracticability of classification through definition. combined with the fact of the arrangement by counties being, more or less, unnatural—though convenient. So far, however, as *Saxon*, or *Southern*, is admitted as the name of a group, so far is the Berkshire dialect a member of the Saxon, or Southern, division. On the west it graduates into the Wilts and Gloster, on the north into that of

§ 326.

OXFORDSHIRE

Dr. Giles suggesting that, in the first element of the word Whichwood (as in Whichwood Forest), we have the name of the Anglo-Saxon *Hwiccas*, also suggests, that in the Forest itself our ancestors had a great natural boundary between the West Saxons and the Mercians. I think this likely; at any rate, I place South Oxfordshire in the present group, adding that the peculiarities of its dialects are of no great importance. This merely means that, in classification, South Oxfordshire goes with Berks. Both, however, are districts for which we have a *minimum* amount of *data*.

It is safe to say that the preceding group contains everything that can be called Saxon, or Southern. On the Northern frontier it contains something more.

CHAPTER VII

EXISTING DIALECTS.—NORTHUMBRIAN, OR NORTHERN, GROUP.

§ 327. It is now convenient to take the groups of the opposite extremity of the island, and to consider the Northern, or Northumbrian, forms of speech. A line drawn from Warrington to Chesterfield, and from Chesterfield to Goole, gives us a limit concerning which we may predicate that everything to the north, and something to the south of it, is *Northumbrian*. Able writers, indeed, make the southern part of Yorkshire and South Lancashire Mercian. I think, however, that they have allowed themselves to be misled by the *political* value of the term.

§ 328

CUMBERLAND

The Impatient Lassie By Anderson — *Westmoreland and Cumberland**Dialects* 1829

Deuce tek the clock' cick-clackin'	But custom's see a silly thing—
Ay in a body's ear, [sac	Thur men mun hae then way,
It tells and tells the teyme is past	And mome a bonny lassie sit
When Jwohnnny sud been here	And wish frae day to day
Deuce tek the wheel, 'twill nit run	I once hed sweethearts monie a yen
Nae man to-neet I'll spin, [oun,	They d weade thi o' muck and mire,
But count each minute wid a seegh	And when our fivok wer deed asleep
Till Jwohnnny he steals in	Com' tiemlin' up t' fie
How neyce the spunky fie it burns	At Cael market lads wad stae,
For twee to sit beseyde,	And talk, and follow me,
And theer's the seat where Jwhonny	Wi' feyne shwoit keakes, ay frae the
And I forget to cheyde, [sits	fair,
My fadder, tu, how sweet he	Baith pockets cramm'd wad be
snwoies,	
My mudder's fast asleep—	O dea'! what changes women pruve
He promised oft, but, oh! I fear	In less than seeben year,
His woid he wunnet keep	I walk the lounns, owie the mun,
	But de'il a chap comes near!
What can it be keeps him frae me?	And Jwohnnny I nee man can trust,
The ways ae nit sae lang,	He's just like aw the lave,
And sleet and snow ae nought at aw	I fin' this sany heart 'll buist
If yen were fain to gang	I'll sum lig r' my grave!
Some udder lass, wi' bonnier feace	But, whisht!—I hear my Jwohnnny's
Has catch'd his wicked ee,	Aye, that's his varia clog! [fit—
And I'll be pointed at at kuik—	He steeks the faul yeat softly tu—
Nay, sumer let me dee!	Oh, hang that cwoley dog!
O duist we lasses nobbet gang	Now hey for seeghs and suggar words,
And sweetheart them we leyke,	Wi' kisses nit a few—
I'd run to thee, my Jwohnnny, lad,	This wail's a perfe't paradeysce
Nor stop at dog or deyke.	When lovers they pruve true!

Song of Solomon, c 2

- 1 I am the rwose o' Sharon, an' the lillie o' the vallahs
- 2 As the lillie amang thwouns, sae is my luve amang the dowteis
3. As the apple-tree amang the trees o' the wud, sae is my beluivet amang the sons I sat down anunder his shaddow wi' muckle deleyght, an' his flute was sweet tu my teaste
- 4 He brong me tu' the banquetin' hwous, an' his bannir ower me was luve
- 5 Stay me wi' flaggans, cumfert me wi' apples for I am seek o' luve
- 6 His left han' is anunder my heed, an' his reet han' infauls me
- 7 I wean you, O ye dowteis o' Jerusalem, by the rwoses, an' heynes o' the fiel, that ye stur nit up, nei awaeken my luve till he please
- 8 The voyce o' my beluivet! behauld, he cums loupin' upon the mwoun-tans, skippin' apon the hills

9 My beluivet is leyke a woe, or a young buck behauld, he stans ahint our waw, he lunks ow't at the wendaws, showin' hussel ow'tseyde the lettie

10 "My beluivet spack, an' said intin me, Reise up, my luive, my fan yen, an' cum away

11 For, lo, the winter is bye, the iam is ower an' geane

12 The fumes apen on the yearth; the teyme o' the singin' burds is cum an' the voyce o' the tutul duve is heard in our lan'

13 The fig-tree puts furth hei green figs, an' veynes wi' the tendir greape gev a guid smel Reise up, my luive, my fan yen, an' cum away

14 O my duve, that art in the cliffs o' the rock, in the secret plectes o' the stans, let me see thy cwoountinence, let me hear thy voyce, for sweet is thy voyce, an' thy cwoountinence is cumlie

15 Teck us the foxes, the litle foxes that weast the veynes, for our veynes hev tendu greapes

16 My beluivet is meyne, an' I am his he feed's amang the lilhes

17 Till the day bieck, an' the shaddaws flec away, tun, my beluivet, an' be thou leyke a woe or a young buck apen the mwountans o' Bethel

The boundaries of what the author of the following extract, Mr W Dickinson, gives as *Central Cumberland* are "marked by a line commencing on the western coast of Cumberland, where the river Eden discharges its waters into the sea, ascending by the course of that stream to Egremont, and by the watershed of the elevated forest of Copeland, and south of the head of Boriowdale to Dunmail Raise. Thence by the south-eastern boundary of the county to Kirkland, at the foot of Crossfell, and northwards along the base of the Blackfell range to Croglin turning westward by Sebergham, Warnel fell, Brocklebank and Aspatria, to Allonby on the shore of the Solway Frith. Within these limits the dialects are tolerably uniform, with occasional imported variations, and gradually shading off near the outskirts, and mixing with the provincialisms of the parts adjoining. To the southward of this area, the form of speech gradually merges into that of North Lancashire; and to the north it becomes largely intermixed with the Southern Scotch, and occasionally with a dash of the Northumbrian burr."

Song of Solomon, c 2.

- 1 Ise t' wose o' Shaon, an' t' hly o' t' valleys
- 2 My leuvv wad leukk amang t' iest as a hly wad leukk amang thorns
3. An' he wad leukk amang other men as a apple-tree i' full bleumm wad leukk in a wood of other sworts o' trees
- 4 He brought ma to t' feast, an' an fand as if his leuvv was o' ower ma
5. Stop ma wid flagons, comfort ma wid apples, for aa 's seek o' leuvv.
6. His left hand 's onder my heed, an' his iet hand coddles ma
7. Aa forbid ye, O ye dowers o' Jerusalem, by t' ices an' t' hands in t' fields 'at ye dasturb nut, ner woken my leuvv, till he pleases

8 My leuvv's voice ' see ya, he comes lowpan ower t' fells, an' skippan ower t' knowes

9 My leuvv is like a loe, or a young buck see ya, he stands ahint our wo', he leuks out o' t' wíndows, an' shows his-sel through t' lattice

10 My leuvv spak, an' sed to ma, Git up, my leuvv, my fair an, an' come away

11 Foi see, t' wínter 's done, t' íam 's ower an' gone

12 T' flowers is spríngan on t' gríund, t' tūne 's cūnt for t' buíds to begin to sing, an' t' sound o' t' wood-pígeon 's hard in t' countíy

13 T' fig-tíce puts foríat t' gríeen figs, an' t' vínes an' t' yóung grápes gíves a good smell Git up, my leuvv, my níce an, an' come away

14 O my pígeon, 'at 's in t' nícks o' t' íock, in t' býe pleaces o' t' crágs, let ma see thy feass an' hea thy voice, for thy voice is sweet, an' thy feass is bonny

15 Catch us t' fíoxes, t' laal áns, 'at spóils t' vínes, for our vínes hez fíne grápes on

16 My leuvv is míne, an' I 's hús he feeds amang t' líhes

17 Til t' dáy breks, an' t' shádwes gang away, tuín, my leuvv, an' 'be líke a loe, or a yóung buck, on Bether fells.

§ 329

WESTMORELAND

"Any one," writes the Rev. J. Richardson, "can hit the Westmoreland *trill* of the *r* who can pronounce the *t'r* in *dowght'r* or the *d'r* in *mudd'r* without the aid of an intervening vowel."

By Mrs Anne Wheeler — Westmoreland and Cumberland Dialects 1839

Gud morrow, gossip Nan,

Haw dus awe at heaam dea?

Haw dus ivvey yan,

Líle Dick en awe dea?

Líle Dick hes deet his coat,

Wí follín wíddle wáddle,

Iíe shínd in víe his foat

Íntul a dúty poadle,

Spínky hes coav'd a bull

En I thought tea selt it,

Soo bíak awt oth hull,

En váira neaíly kált it

* * *

Tom is gaylie week,

Sends his saívis teaa,

Sáll hes hóí heí heel,

En wód hea cūm et seea

I cannt miss thís spot,

But mūn coo et seea,

I'd íader gang íawndth Knot,

Then nít say haw deea

Faíe yee week, deaí Ann,

As I am a sunnei,

Clock hes strúcken yan,

Fleaks toth fríy for dínnér.

Song of Solomon, c 2

1 I 's t' rooaz o' Sharon, an' t' líly o' t' válleys

2 As t' líly amang t' thwóíus, sooa 's my lūv amang t' dowght'rs

3 As t' apple-tree amang t' fíces o' t' wóod, sooa 's my belívd amang t' sūns I sat me doon únd'r hús sháddo' wí' geít plízzr, an' hús fíewt was sweet to my teast'

4 He fetéht me to t' feeastín'-hoose, an' hús bánnér ower me was lūv

5 Prop me wí' flágons, cūnt'rt me wí' ápples: for I 's sūck o' lūv.

6. His left hand is und'r my heead, an' his reeght hand coddles me
 7 I cawtion ye, O dowght'is o' Jerewsalem, by t' roes an' by t' hunds o' t' fields, 'at ye nowd'i stu ūp, nor wecak'n my lūv, while he chewses
 8 T' voice o' my belūv'd' loo' the', he cū's lowpin' o' t' fells skelpin' o' t' hills.
 9 My belūv'd is like a roe, or a yūng hart. loo' the', he stan's ahint oor wo', he glimcs oot at t' wmdo's, shewin' hussel' through t' lat-waak
 10 My belūv'd specak, an' said to me, Git ūp, my lūv, my faur un, an' cū' thy ways
 11 For, see the' t' wint'r's past, t' ian 's ower an' geean
 12 T' flook'is shews theisels o' t' grund, t' tunc o' t' singin' o' birds is cū'n, t' cushat-coo is h'ad in oor land
 13 T' fig-face puts oot her green figs, an' t' vines wi' t' tend'r grapes give a good smell Git ūp, my lūv, my faur un, an' cū' thy ways
 14 O my cūshat, 'at 's i' t' gukes o' t' crags, i' t' darkn'-whols o' t' slams, let me see thy coontenance, let me hear thy voice, for sweet is thy voice, an' thy coontenance is goodlike
 15 Catch us t' foxes, t' hle foxes, 'at spoils oor vines for oor vines ha' tend'i grapes
 16 My belūv'd 's mine, an' I 's his, he feeds amang t' lilies
 17 T'll t' day bicks, an' t' shaddo's flees away, tūn roond, my belūv'd, and be like a roe, or a yūng hart, o' t' fells o' Bethel

§ 330.

NORTH LANCASHIRE

Song of Solomon, c 2

- 1 I'm t' rose a Shaon, an' t' hly a t' valleys.
 2 As t' hly amang t' thorns, saah iz me lov amang t' dowters
 3 As t' apple-tree amang t' trees a t' wood, saah iz me belov'd amang t' sons I saat down unde' hūz shada we graāt delight, an' hūz fruit was sweet ta me taast
 4 He biowt ma ta t' feasin house, an' hūz banner owci ma was love
 5 Stop ma we flagons, pleaz ma we apples for I'm sick a love
 6 His left hand iz unde' me head, an' his reight hand embraaces me
 7 I charge ye, O ye dowters a Jerusalem, by t' raas, an' t' hunds a t' field, that ye stir nut up, nur awaak me lov, wal he pleaz
 8 The voice a me belov'd' Luke ya, he comes loupin on t' mountains, skippin on t' hills.
 9 Me belov'd is like a raā or a young hart luke ya, he stans behint oor woe, he lukes owt a t'windas, shewin' hussel through t' lattice
 10 Me belov'd spaak, and saad ta ma, Git up, me lov, me faur yan, an' come away
 11 For, see ya, t' winter's past, t' raan is ower an' gaān.
 12 T' flowers appear on t' earth the tunc a t' singin' birds iz come, an' t' voice a t' tortles iz heard in owi land,
 13 T' fig-tree puts owt her green figs, an' t' vines we tender graāp gaāv a good smell. Git up, me love, me faur yan, an' come away
 14 O me pet, th' art in t' cracks a t' rocks, in t' secret plaaces a t' staads,

let ma see the faas, let ma hear the voice, for sweet iz the voice, an the faas iz nice

15 Taak us ta t' foxes, t' hlc foxes, at spoil t' vines for ovr vines hev tender graaps

16 Me belov'd iz mine an I'm huz he feeds amang t' liles

17 Wal t' day break, an t' shadas flee away, toin, me belov'd, an be tha like a llaa oi a young hart on t' mountains a Bethel

SOUTH LANCASHIRE

Song of Solomon, c 2

1 Awn th' rose o' Shayron, un th' hly oth' valleys

2 As th' hly amung thurns, so 's ma love amung th' doweis

3 As th' appo-tice amung th' tices oth' wood, so is ma beloved amung th' sons Aw keawit deawn under his shadow wi' greight deleet, un his fruit wur sweet to my taste.

4 He biowt me to th' banquetin-heawse, un his banner o'ei me wur love

5 Stay me wi' flagons, comfort me wi' appos for awm sick o' love

6 His left hont is under my yed, un his reet hont clips me

7 Aw charge yoa, O yoa doweis o' Jerusalem, by th' roses, un' th' hounds oth' fielt, that yoa stur not up, noi wakken ma love, till he pleos

8 Th' veighce o' ma beloved ' lucko, he comes loopin uppo th' meawntins, skippin uppo th' hills

9 Ma belov'd is loike a roe, oi a yung hart lucko, he stonds behaund eawr waw, he gloois at th' windows, showin hussel through th' lattis

10 Ma belov'd spoke, un said to me, Roise up, ma love, ma fan un, un come away

11 For, sithec, th' winter's past, th' iam's o'ei un gone

12 Th' fleawis appea uppo th' earth, th' toime oth' singin-birds is cumn, un th' veighce oth' turtle's yeid i eawr load

13 Th' fig-tree puts eawt hui green figs, un th' voimes wi' th' tender grape give a bonny smell Get up, ma love, ma fan un, un come away

14 O ma dove, theaw'it ith' cliffs oth' rocks, ith' huddun places oth' stans, le' me see thy face, le' me yea thy veighce, for sweet is thy veighce, un thy face is pratty

15 Tak us th' foxes, th' litle foxes ut speighl th' voimes, for eawr voimes have tender grapes

16 Ma love is moine, un awm hui he feeds amung th' liles

17 Tell th' day brieghts, un th' shadows hie away, turn, ma belov'd, un be theaw loike a yung llae, oi a yung hart uppo th' meawntins o' Bethel

Waugh's Lancashire Songs, No 6.

1

The dulc's i' this bonnet o' mine;

My ribbins 'll never be reet,

Heie, Mally, aw'm like to be fine,

For Jamie'll be comm' to-neet,

He met me i'th' lone tother day,—

Aw're goom' for wayter to th' well,—

An' he begged that aw'd wed him i' May,

Bi'th' mass, iv he'll let me, aw will.

2

When he took my two hands into his,
 Good Lord, heav they trembled between;
 An' aw dunstn't look up in his face,
 Becose on him seem' my een,
 My cheek went as red as a rose,—
 There's never a mortal can tell
 Heav happy aw felt, for, thea knows,
 One couldn't ha' axed him thensel'

3

But th' tale wur at th' end o' my tung,—
 To let it cawt wouldn't be rest,—
 For aw thought to seem foinud wur wurung,
 So aw tow'd him aw'd tell him to-meet,
 But, Mally, thea knows very weel,—
 Though it isn't a thing one should own,—
 If aw'd th' pikeim' o'th' would to mysel',
 Aw'd oather ha' Jamme or noan

4

Neaw, Mally, aw' ve tow'd tho my mind,
 What wouldto do iv 'twun thee?
 "Aw'd tak him just while he's inclined,
 An' a farrantly bargain he'd be,
 For Jamme's as greedily a lad
 As ever stept cawt into th' sun,
 Go, jump at thy chance, an' get wed,
 An' may th' best o'th' job when it's done!"

5.

Eh, dear, but it's time to be gwon,—
 Aw shouldn't like Jamme to wart,—
 Aw cannut for shame be too soon,
 An' aw wouldn't for th' would be too late
 Aw'm o' ov a tremble to th' heel,—
 Dost think at my bonnet'll do?—
 "Be off, lass,—thae looks very weel,—
 He wants noan o'th' bonnet, thea foo!"

From Tum Bobbin—the spelling somewhat exaggerated

Tum Theaws no peshunce, Meary, boh howd te tung on theawst hear in o snift for theaw mun know, ot tis some cunstable wur os preawd ot id tein poor Tum prisnei, or if theaw'd tean o hare on had hur eh the appern meet neaw, boh th' gobbin ne'er considert o' hongung would naw be cawd good spooart be ony body eh ther senses, on wer enough fort' edge o finer mou's teeth in mine. Heawe'er he knock os bowdly ot justice's dur, os if id ha dung it deawn This foteht o preaw'd graff felly cawt, whooa put us int' a pleck we as money books an papers as a caat wou'd howd To this mon (whooa I soon perceiv't wur th' clark) th' cunstable tow'd meh wofoo kesse, an eh truth, Meary, I'r os gawmless os o goose, on began o whackerng os if I'd stown o

how draight o hoises Then this felly went cawt o bit, on with him coom the justice, whooa I glenduit soar, an thowt he favoit owd John o' Dobs, whooa theaw knows awlus wears a breawnish white wig, ot hangs on his shlders like keaw-teals "Well, Mi Cunstable," sed justice, "whot han ye brought me new?" "Why, pleeos yer worship, veen meet neww tean o horse-steyler, whooa wuu meying off with tit os hard os he cou'd" Od, thought I't meh seln, "new or never" I'm' speyke for the sell, or theawit throttilt ot tis very beawt, so I speek up and sed, "that's naw true, Mi Justice, for I'i boh goonik ofoot's pese" "Umph," said th' justice, "there's naw mitch difference as to that point Heave'er, howd teaw the tung, yung mon, and speyk when the't spokk'n too Well, theaw mon ith breawn coot, theaw ' ' sed th' justice, "whot has theaw to sey ogen this felly here? Is this tit thy tit, seys to?" "It is, su" "Here clark, bring's that book, on let's swear him" Here the justice sed o nommy to 'im, on towd 'im he munt tey kere o whot ch sed, or he moot as helt be foresworn, or ong that yeawth there "Well, on theaw says ot tis tit's thy tit, is it?" "It is, pleeos yer worship" "On where had teaw him, seys to?" "I biad im, su" "E what country?" "Cown-edge, su" "On when wuu he stown, seys to?" "Last day boh yusteday, abeawt three o'clock ith oanduth for eaww Yem saugh 'im abeawt two, on ve must 'im abeawt four o'clock" "On fio Cown-edge, theaw seys?" "Yes, sur" Then the justice tun'd im to me, on sed, "Is aw tis tue ot this man seys, heas to meh?" "It is," said I, "part on't, on part on't is naw for I did naw steyl this tit nor ist oboon two eawis sin fuist time ot ch biad meh e'n on im" "Heaw coom theaw't be ridng owey w' im then, if theaw did naw steyl im?" "Why, o good deed, su, os I'r gomk toar whom to day, o felly weh o little reawnd hat, on o scunt wig, cullu o joars, welly, boh shorter, o'citook meh, he wuu ridng o one tit on lad another Neww this mon seemk I'i toyard, becose I went wigglety-wagglety ith' lone, he offer't meh his lad tit t'ide on I'r fene oth' proffer, beleemy, on geet on boh he ide off, whp on spu, tho he cou'd hardly mey th' tit keawnter on wou'd stey on meh ot on eleheawse ith' road Naw, Master Justice, I'd naw gon three-quarters on o mile boh theese fok o'eitean meh, towd meh I'd stown th' tit on neww han brought meh hither, os in I'r o' 'Yorshai horse-steyler' On this is aw true, Master Justice, or mey I ne'ei gut' on ill pleck when ch dee"

The *winnot*, *munnot*, and *shunnot* = *will not*, *must not*, and *shall not*, are, in other parts of Lancashire, pronounced *wunner*, *munner*, *shunner*. The statement that *fire* is pronounced *feighlur*, and *key* = *keigh*, suggests the likelihood of the Craven *h*, and the Scotch *ch* having been used in these parts. To this add the notice concerning the pronunciation of *Leigh*, as found elsewhere (page 377)

The Oldham Weaver From *Mary Barton*, vol i pp 51, 52

1

O'm o poor cotton-weyver, as mony a one knowas,
O've nowt for teh yeat, an o've woin eawt my cloos,

Yo'ad hardly gi' tuppence for aw as oi've on,
 My clogs are both broken, and stuckins oi've none
 Yo'd think it wui hard,
 To be howt into th' wauld,
 To be—clemmed, an do th' best as yo con

2

Owd Dicky o' Billy's kept telling me lung,
 Wee s'd ha' better tomes if I'd but howd my tung,
 Oi've howden my tung, till oi've near stopped my breath,
 Oi think i' my heeat oi'se soon clem to deeach,
 Owd Dicky's weel clemmed,
 He never wui clemmed,
 An' he ne'er picked ower i' his loife

3.

We tow't on iz week—thinking aitch day wur th' last,
 We shifted, an' shifted, till neaw we're quite fast,
 We lived upo' nettles, while nettles wui good,
 An' Waterloo porridge the best o' cawrfood,
 Oi'm tellin' yo' true,
 Oi can find folk enow,
 As wur livin' na better nor me

4

Owd Billy o' Dans sent th' baileys one day,
 Fur a shop deebt oi eawd him, as oi could na pay,
 But he wui too lat, fur owd Billy o' th' Bent,
 Had sowed th' tit an' cart, an' ta'en goods fur th' rent,
 We'd neawt left bo' th' owd stoo',
 That wui seeats fur two,
 An' on it eawd Marget an' me

5

Then t' baileys leuked reawnd un as sloy as a meawse,
 When they seed as aw' t' goods were ta'en eawt o' t' heawse,
 Says one chap to th' tother, "Aws gone, theaw may see,"
 Says oi, "Ne'er fret, mon, year welcome me."
 They made no more ado
 But whopped up th' eawd stoo',
 An' we boath leet, whack—upo' t' flags!

6.

Then oi said to eawi Marget, as we lay upo' t' floor,
 "We's never be lower i' this wauld, oi'm sure,
 If ever things awtein, oi'm sure they mun mend,
 For oi think i' my heeat we're boath at t' far end;
 For meat we ha' none,
 Nor looms teh weyve on,—
 Edad! they're as good lost as fund"

7.

Eaw! Marget declares had hoo cloas to put on,
 Hoo'd goo up to Lunnon an' talk to th' greet 'mon;
 An' if things were na awtered when there hoo had been,
 Hoo's fully resolved t' sew up meawth an' ecnd,

Hoo's newt to say again t' king,

But hoo loikes a fair thing,

An' hoo says hoo can tell when hoo's hunt.

An old Ballad. From Halliwell

1.

Now, au yo good gentlefoak an yo wan taily,
 I'll tel yo how Gilbert Scot soud the mare Barry,
 He soud his mare Barry at Warrikin fair,
 But when he'll be pade he kno's no', I swear!

2

So when he coom wom, and tou'd his wife Grace,
 Hoo stand up o'th' kippo, and swat him oie'th' face,
 Hoo pi'cht him o'th' hillock, and he faw'd with a wack,
 That he thou't would welly a brocken his back.

3

"O woufe!" quo' hee, "if thou'lt lemme but use,
 I'll gr' the au' th' lect wench mme that lies"
 "Thou udgt!" quo hoo, "but wher does he dwell?"
 "Be lakin," quo hee, "that I connau tel,

4

"I tuck him for t' be sum gentlemon's son,
 For he spent tuppence on me when we had dun,
 And he gen me a lunchen o' denty smug poy,
 And bi'th' hond't did he shak me moost lovingly."

5

Then Grace, hoo prompt'd hur neatly and fine,
 And to Warrikin went o' Wednesday betime,
 And theen too, hoo stade for 5 markit days,
 Til the mon wi' the mare were cum 't Rondle Shays.

6

And as hoo was restin one day in her rowm,
 Hoo spy'd t' the mon ridin th' mare into the town,
 Then bounce go's her hart, and hoo wur so gloppen,
 That out o'th' winder hoo'd like for to loppen

7.

Hoo stamp't and hoo stardt, and down th' stairs hoo run,
 Wi' hur hart in hur hondt, and her wind welly gone
 Her head gee' flew off, and so did hur snowd,
 Hoo stamp'dt and hoo stardt as if hoo'd been wod

8

To Roudle's hoo hy'd, and hoo hov up the latch,
 Afore th' mon had ty'd th' mare gradely to th' cratch,
 "My gud mon," quo hoo, "my friend greets you ight merrily,
 And begs that yo'l send huu the money for Beary"

9

"Oh, money!" quo he, "that kannau I spare"
 "Be lakn," quo hoo, "then I'le ha the mare!"
 Hoo poodt and hoo thruompeidt him shame to be seen
 "Thou hangmon!" quo hoo, "I'le poo out the een!"

10

"I'le mak thee a sompan, I'le houd thee a groat,
 I'le other ha th' money or poo out the throat!"
 So between 'em they made sich a weansom din,
 That to mak 'em at peace Roudle Shay did come in

11

"Com, fye, naunty Grace—com, fye and a dun,
 Yo'st ha th' mare, or the money, whether you won"
 So Grace geet the money, and whomwards hoo's gon,
 B t hoo keeps it heiself, and gies Gilbert Scot none.

§ 331.

CHESHIRE

*Farmer Dobbin**A Day w' the Cheshur Fox Dugs*

"Thear's slutch upo' thoi coat, mon, thear's blood upon thoi chin,
 It's welly toom for milkn, now where ever 'ast 'ee bin?"

"Oiv bin to see the gentlefolk o' Cheshur ioid a run,
 Owd wench! oiv bin a hunting, an oiv seen some rattling fun"

Th' owd mare was in the smithy when the huntsman, he tiots through,
 Black Bill agate o' ammering the last nail in hei shoe,
 The curver laud so wheam loik, and so jovial foun the day,
 Says I, "Owd mare, we'll take a fling and see 'em go away"

When up an oi'd got shut ov aw the hackney pads an traps,
 Orse dealers an orse jockey lads, an such loik swaggering chaps,
 Then what a power o' gentlefolk did oi set oies upon!
 A ieming in their hunters, aw blood oises every one!

They'd aw got bookskin leathers on, a fitten 'em so toight,
 As round an plump as turmits be, an just about as whoit,
 Their spurs wor maid o' siller, an their buttons maid o' brass,
 Then coats wor ied as carriots an their collurs green as grass.

A varment looking gemman on a wony tit I seed,
 An another close besoid him, sitting noble on his steed,
 They ca' them both owd codgers, but as fresh as paint they look,
 John Glegg, Esquoir, o' Withington, an bowd Sir Richard Brooke

I seed Squoir Geffiey Shakeley, the best un o' that breed,
His smoin'g face tould plainly how the sport wi' him agreed,
I seed the 'Ail ov Gosvenor, a loikly lad to roid,
I seed a soight worth aw the rest, his faiently young bloid

Zur Umferry de Trafford, an the Squoir ov Ailey Haw,
His pocket full o' igmaiole a rhooming on 'em aw,
Two Members for the County, both aloik ca'd Egerton,
Squoir Henry Brooks and Tummus Brooks, they 'd aw green collurs on

Eh ' what a mon be Dixon John, ov Astle Haw, Esquoir,
You wudna foud, an measue him, his marrow in the shoir,
Squoir Wilbraham o' the Forest, death an danger he defois
When his coat be toightly buttoned up, an shut be both lus oies

The Honeable Lazzles, who from founn parts be cum,
An a chip of owd Lord Delamere, the Honeable Tum,
Squoir Fox an Booth an Worthington, Squou Massey an Squoir Harne,
An many moie big sportsmen, but then neames I didna lain

I seed that great commander in the saddle, Captain Whoit,
An the pack as thrung'd about him was indeed a giadely soight,
The dugs look'd fom as satin, an himsel look'd hard as nails,
An he giv the swells a caution not to roid upo' then tails

Says he, " Young men o' Monchesteer an Livveipoo, cum near,
Oiv just a word, a warning word, to whisper in your ear,
When startin from the curver soid, ye see bowd Reynard burst,
We canna 'ave no 'untin if the gemmen go it first "

Tom Rance has got a single oie wuth many another's two,
He held his cap abuv his yed to shew he'd had a view,
Tom's voice was loik th' owd raven's when he skoik'd out " Tally ho! "
For when the fox had seen Tom's feace he thought it toim to go

Eh moy ' a pratty jungle then went ringin'g through the skoy,
Fuist Victory, then Villager begun the merry croy,
Then every maith was open from the oud'un to the pup,
An aw the pack together took the swelling choius up

Eh moy ' a pretty skouver then was kick'd up in the vale,
They skm'd across the running brook, they topp'd the post an rail,
They didna stop for razzui cop, but play'd at touch an go,
An them as miss'd a footin there, lay doubled up below

I seed the 'ounds a crossin Farmer Flareup's boundary loin,
Whose daughter plays the peany and drinks whoit sheary woin,
Gowd rings upon her finger and silk stockings on her feet,
Says I, " It won't do him no harm to roid across his wheat "

So, toightly houdin on by'th yed, I hits th' owd mare a whop,
Hoo plumps into the muddle o' the wheatfield neck an crop,
And when hoo flounder'd out on it I catch'd another spin,
An, missis, that 's the cagion o' the blood upo' my chin

I never oss'd another lep, but kep the lane, and then
 In twenty minutes' toon about they tun'd toart me agen ;
 The fox was fomly daggled, an the tits aw out o' breath,
 When they kilt him in the open, an owd Dobbin seed the death

Loik dangling of a babby, then the Huntsman hove him up,
 The dugs a bayin round him, while the gemmen croud, Whoo-hup !
 Then clane an quick, as doesome cawves lek flectins from the pail,
 They worried every inch ov 'im, except his yed and tail

What 's up wi' them rich gentlefolk and lords as was na there ?
 There was noither Marquis Chumley, nor the Voiscount Combermere,
 Norther Legh, nor France o' Bostock, nor the Squon o' Peckfonton—
 How cums it they can stop awhom, such spout a gorm on ?

Now, mssis, sin the markets be a doin moderate well,
 Oiv welly maid my mouid up just to buoy a nag mysel,
 Foi to keep a farmer's spirits up 'gen things be gettin low,
 Theer 's nothin loik Fox-huntin and a rattling Tally-ho !

§ 332.

STAFFORDSHIRE AND SHROPSHIRE (°)

A Christmas Carol From All Round the Wichen, by W. White, p. 288

1

“As oi sot on a sunny bonk—
 A sunny bonk—a sunny bonk—
 As oi sot on a sunny bonk,
 On Christmas Dee in t' mornin',
 Oi saw thray ships coom seeln' boy—
 Coom seeln' boy—coom seeln' boy—
 Oi saw thraw ships coom seeln' boy,
 On Christmas Dee in t' mornin'.

2

“And hew should bay in thase thray ships—
 In thase thray ships—in thase thray ships—
 And hew should bay in thase thray ships,
 But Juseph and his fair leddy
 And thay did whistle, and thay did sing,
 And all the bells on anth did ing,
 For joy that the Saviour hay was bawn
 On Christmas Dee in t' mornin' ”

From Halliwell's Archaic and Provincial Dictionary

- A Dun you know solden-mouth Summy ?
 B Ees, an' a neathon good feller he is tew
 A A desput quiet mon' but he loves a sup o' dunk. Dun you know his woiif?
 B. Know her, ay. Hoo's the very devl when her spirt's up.

A. Hoo is Hoo uses that mon sheamful, hoo rags him every neet o' her loif

B Hoo does Oive known her come into the public, and call him al' the names hoo could lay her tongue tew afore all the company. Hoo oughts to stay till hoo's got him i' the boat, and then hoo mit say wha hoo'd a moind. But hoo taks aiter hei feyther

A Hew was her feyther?

B Whoy, singing Jemmy

A Oi don't think as oi ever know'd singing Jemmy Was he ode Soaker's brother?

B Ees, he was He lived a top o' Hell Bouk He was the wickedest, sweainst mon as ever I know'd I should think as how he was the wickedest mon i' the wold, and they say he had the rheumatiz so bad.

§ 333.

DERBISHIRE AND NOTTINGHAMSHIRE (?)

A Dialogue between Farmer Bennet and Tummas Lide From Halliwell

FARMER BENNET Tummus, why dunnun yo mend meh shoon?

TUMMUS LIDE Becoz, mester, 'tis zo cood, I conner work wee the tachin aw, I've brockn it ten times I'm shui to do It freezes zo hard. Why Hester hung out a smock flock to dry, an in thice minits it wor froozen as stiff as a poker, and I conner afford to keep a good fire, I wish I cud, I'd soon mend yore shoon, an uthers tow I'd soon yain some munney, I wariant ye Conner yo find some work for m', mester, these hard times? I'll doo onnythink to addle a penny I con thresh, I con split wood, I con mak spais, I con thack, I con skower a dike, an I con trench tow, but it freezes zo hard I con winner—I con fother, or milk If there be need on't, I woodner mind drivin plow or onnythink

FARMER B I hanner got nothin for ye to doo, Tummus, but Mester Boord towld me jist now that they wor goom to winne, an that they shud want sumbody to help 'em

TUMMUS L O, I'm glad on't. I'll run oor an' zee whether I con help 'em, but I hanner been weem the threshold ov Mester Boord's doer for a nation time, becoz I thoot misses didner use Hester well, bui I dunner bear malice, and zo I'll goo

FARMER B. What did misses Boord za oi doo to Hester then?

TUMMUS L Why, Hester may be wor summut to blame too, for her wor one on 'em, de ye zee, that jaw'd Skummeton, the mak gam that frunted zum o' the gentlefook They said t'wor time to dun we sich litter, or sich stuff, or I dunner know what they caw'd it, but they wore frunted wee Hester bout it, an I said, If they wor frunted we Hester, they mid bee frunted wee me This set misses's back up, an Hester hanner bin a charin there sin But 'tis no use to bear malice. zo I'll goo oor, and zee which we the winde blows.

§ 334.

YORKSHIRE

Sheffield From A Bywater's Sheffield Dialect

Cum all yo cutlin heroes, where'ersome yo be,
All yo wot works at flat-backs, cum lissen unto me,

A basketful for a shillin,
 To mak em we aie willin,
 Or swap em for red heirins, ahr bellies tubbe fillin,
 Or swap em for red heirins, ahr bellies tubbe fillin,

A basket full o' flat-backs o'm shure we'l mak, or mooar,
 To get ier into't gallara, whear we can rant an 100a1,
 Thro' flat-backs, stooans, an sticks,
 Red heirins, boeans, an buicks,
 If they dooant play Nansa's fansa, or onna tune we fix,
 We'l do the best at e'er we can to bialk sum ore ther necks

Hey, Jont, lad, is that thee, where ait ta waddlin too?
 Dusta work at flat-backs yit, as thahs been used to do?
 Hah, cum an tha'st gooa wimma,
 An a sample o will gi'tha,

It's won at o've just fooaged uppa Jeffra's bian new stidda,
 Look at it well, it duz excel all't flat-backs e ahr smitha

Let's send for a pitcher a' ale, lad, for o'm gerim veira droi,
 O'm ommast chooakt we smitha sleck, the wound it is so hor
 Ge Rafe and Jer a drop,
 They sen they cannot stop,
 They'ie e sitch a morta hura to get to 't penny hop
 They'ie e sich a morta hura to get to 't penny hop

Here's Streean at lves at Heela, he'l soon be here, o kno,
 He's laint a new Makkarona step, the best yo ivver saw,
 He has it sooa compleat,
 He trees up ivvera street,

An ommast bialks all t' pavois we swaitin dahn his feet
 An Anak tries to beat him whenever they dun meet

We'l raise a tail be Sunda, Steeam, o kno whoa's won to sell,
 We'l tee a hammer heead at end, to mak it balance well,
 It's a ier new Lunnon tail,
 We'l ware it kail for kail,

Ahr Anak browt it we him, that neet he cum be t' mail
 We'l drink success unto it,—hey! Jont, lad, teem aht t' ale

Sheffield

Song of Solomon, c. 2.

- 1 O'm t' rooaz a' Sharon, an' t' lili a' t' valliz
- 2 As t' lili among thoans, sooa is mo luv among t' dowters
- 3 As t' apple-tree among t' trees a' t' wood, sooa is mo beluvved among t' suns. O sat dahn under his shaddo we giet deloight, an his fiut wer sweet tummi tast
- 4 He bowt ma to t' banquittin hahse, an his banner ore ma wer luv.
- 5 Stay ma we flaggons, comfort ma we apples, for o 'm sick a' luv
- 6 His left hand 's under mo' heead, an' his reit hand huddles ma
- 7 O charge ya, O ye dowters a' Jerusalem, be t' roes an be t' hoinds i' t' field, that yo stur not up nor wakken mo luv till he pleez.

8 T' voice a' mo beluvved' behold, he cometh lopin uppa t' mahntins, skippin uppa t' hills

9 Mo beluvved's loik a roe or a young hart behold, he stans beheent ahr wall, he looks foorath at t' winders, sho'm his-sen throo t' lattice

10 Mo beluvved spake, an said tumma, Roiz up, mo luv, mo fair an, an come away

11 For, lo, t' winter's past, t' iarn's ore an gone

12 T' flahveys appea uppa t' eath, an t' toime a' singin a' t' burds is come, an' t' voice a' t' tuttle's heeard i' t' land,

13 T' fig-tree puts forad her green figs, an t' voines we t' tende' grape ge's a good smell Roiz, mo luv, mo fair an, an come away.

14 O mo duv, thah'rt i' t' clefts a' t' rock, i' t' seciet places a' t' stairs, let ma see thah cahntenance, let ma hea thah voice, for sweet is thah voice, an thah cahntenance is comla

15 Tak us t' foxes, t' litle foxes, at spoils t' voines for ahr voines as tender grapes

16 Mo beluvved's moine, an o'm his he feeds amang t' hllhz.

17 Til t' day brek, an t' shaddez fli away, turn, mo beluvved, an be thah loik a roe or a young hart uppa t' mahntins a' Bether

Burnsley

Local Laws for Pudsa Burnsley Foaks Annual, 1856

Noa man or up-grown lad sal be alaad ta wauk up a t'causey we boath huz hands in huz pocket, unless it's on a vairy coud winter's day, an thay caant affoad to bye theisenze a pan a gloves

Two men gonn aum-e-ann together sal be ta wauk e t'middle a t'street, for it's considerd at thay tay az much room up az a broad-wheel'd cart

Yung men an ther sweethearts ta wauk aum-e-ann where thay like, but not ta interrupt t'free passage a uther foaks, be stoppin ta look e more than twenty shop-windaz e wun street

Men, gonn a marketn we ther wives at t'Setterdays, a purpas ta see at thay doant cheat em, saant be alaad, ta goa an carry ther basket, an pick em up when they tumal, will be lawfull

Noa cannal sal be alaad ta be snufft we t'finger an thum, or blawn aght when it's cloise * ta onny boddiz faice

Noabdy sal be alaad ta coff e t'cheich or chapil, becos thay happan ta hea sumady else do it; if thave a coud it's lawfull

Foaks may hev az menny folse teeth az thay like, but folse tongues an prohibited

Wimmen sal be alaad to sing ther bauns ta sleep, an at windin-wheel an wesh-tub, but not e ther huzbands' ears

Noa womman sal be alaad whissal, az it's considerd ta be az bad as a cawwn hen

Cotton-wool sal not be alaad e t'ear ov awther man or womman, when thaire e cumpany ov onnyboddy at's speikin t'tuth.

West Riding

Song of Solomon, c. 2.

1. Ah'm t' roaz a' Sharon an' t' hly a' t' valleys

2 As t' hly amang thorns, soa iz my luv amang t' dowters

* This use of *or* is at its maximum about Leeds

3. Az t' apple-tree among t' trees a' t' wood soa iz my beluv'd among t' sons. Ah sat daan under huz shada w' gicet delect, an huz fiewt woi sweet ta my taste

4 He blowt ma ta t' banquetin' hahee, an' huz bauner owe ma wor luv

5 Stay ma w' flagons, cumfat ma w' apples, for ah'm suck a' luv

6 Hiz left hand's under my head, an' hiz reight hand embraces ma

7 Ah charge ya, O yo dowters a' Jerusalem, b'y t' roes, an' b'y t' hunds a' t' field, 'at yo stir not up, nor waken my luv, till he pleaze.

8 T' voice a' my beluv'd' behowd he cumes laupin' upa' t' malntans, skip-pin' upa' t' hills

9 My beluv'd' s like a roe, or a young hart, behowd, he stands belunt ahi wall, he looks foorth at t' windas, shewin' huzsen thro' t' lattice

10 My beluv'd spak, an' said ta ma, Rise up, my luv, my fan 'un, an' cum awez

11 For, lo, t' winter's past, t' ian's over an' goon

12 T' flahs appear on t' earth, t' time a' t' singin' a' birds iz cum, an' t' voice a' t' turtle's heard i' ahi land,

13. T' fig-tee puts foorth her green figs, an' t' vines w' t' tender grape gie a good smell Rise, my luv, my fan 'un, an cum awez

14 O my duve, 'at art i' t' clefts a' t' rock, i' t' seacit places a' t' stans, let ma see thee cahntenance, let ma hear thee voice, for sweet iz thee voice, an' thee cahntenance iz cumly

15 Tak uz t' foxes, t' little foxes, 'at spoil t' vines for alr vines hae tender grapes

16 My beluv'd' s mme, an' ah'm huz, he feeds among t' lilies

17 Unti t' day breyk, an' t' shadas flee awez, tuun, my beluv'd, an' b'e thah like a roe, or a young hait upa' t' malntans a' Bether

Cruen

Song of Solomon, c 2.

1 I is 't rooaz o' Shaiun, an' 't lilly o' t' gills

2 As 't lilly among t' wicks, evven soaa is mah luv among t' dowghters

3 As 't apple-tree among t' trees o' t' wud, evven sooa is mah luv among t' sons A sat mah daan unnei as shadow, w' gut delaught, an' as fiewt wur sweeat to mah teast

4. A blowght mah till t' banquetin'-heouse, an' as flag owe mah wur luv

5 Stay mah w' pots, comfort mah w' apples, fur a is fair daan w' luv

6 As leaft han' is unner mah heead, an' as rect han' cuddles mah.

7 A charge yah, O yah dowghters o' Jerusalem, by t' roes, an' by t' hunds o' t' field, 'at yah rog nut, nother wakken mah luv till that a chews

8 'T voice o' mah luv' sithah, a cums lopeing upo' t' fells, skipping upo' t' hills

9 Mah luv is laike until a roe, or a yung stag sithah, a stanns ahint wir wa', a keeks foorth eouet o' t' winder, shown' hussel through t' casement

10 Mah luv spak, an' sed until mah, Geet up, mah luv, mah bewty, an' cum away

11. For, sithah, t' winter's past, t' rain's over an' gon

12 'T flowers appear upov t' ynd, t' taume o' t' singing o' birds is cum, an' t' voice o' t' turtle's heard i' wu lan'

13 'T fig-tee puts foorth her green figs, an' t' vines w' t' tenner graape gi' a gey good smell. Geet up, mah luv, mah bewty, an' cum away

14. O mah dux, at is i' t hoiles o' t scarr, i' t saycrit pleeaces o' t staans, leet mah see thah feeace, leet mah heear thah voice, fur sweet is thah voice, an' thah fecace is bonny

15 Cotch us 't foxes, 't laile foxes, 'at spoil us 't vaines, fur wir vaines ha' tenner gaapes

16 Mah luv is mame, an' I is hysn a pasteis amang 't lilhes

17. Until 't day break, an' 't shadows flee away, toorn, mah luv, an' bee to laike until a roe or a yung stag upov 't fells o' Bether

In a paper of Mr. Garnett's written long before our dialects had been studied with anything like due care, is a curious statement concerning the name of the town of *Leigh* in Lancashire. It is mentioned as a kind of Shibboleth, being sounded as if the *gh* were the German *ch*. It is also said to be the only word in which this sound survives

This statement, which always struck me as a strange one, is explained in the prelmunary notes to Mr H A Littleddale's Song of Solomon. where we are told that, in Craven, *h* is frequently sounded like the Greek χ . More than this, in old words "there is a soft guttural like the German *ich*, added to terminations in *l*. At present it only appears in a few proper names, as

Settle, pronounced *Settilgh*,
Kendal, „ *Kendalgh*.

The traces of it are seen also in

Greenhalgh, now *Greenhall*,
Ridehalgh, „ *Ridehaugh*.

This, however, is so nearly obsolete that I have left the terminations in *l* to their ordinary English spelling. *Sough* has this guttural sound."

Cleveland
Song of Solomon, c 2.

- 1 Hah am the rose o' Sharon, and the lily of the valleys
- 2 As the lily amang the breeis, sae is mah honey amang the dowieis
- 3 As the apple-tree amang the trees o' the wood, sae is mah beluvved amang the sons. Hah sat down under his shadow wi' greeat deleet, an' his fruit was sweet to mah teast
- 4 He browt me to t' feeasting-hoose, an' his banner ower me was luv.
- 5 Stay me wi' flagons, cumfort me wi' apples, for hah's seek o' luv
- 6 His left hand is under mah heead, and his reet hand laps round me.
- 7 Hah chaarge ye, O ye dowieis o' Jerusalem, by the roes an' by the hunds o' the field, that ye stoor nut up nor wakken mah luv till he list
- 8 The voice of mah beluvved ' socsthee, he comes lowpin upon the moun-tains, boundin ower the hills

9 Mah beluvved is like a roe or a young hart, lothec ' he stands ahant oor wall, he looks out at the windows, showing his-sel at the kecasment.

10 Mah beluvved spak, an' sed to me, Get up, mah luv, mah bonny yan, an' hme away.

11 Foi leukst the', the winter 's neea man, the rain is owei an' geean,

12 The flooers cum on the yeith, the time o' the singin o' burds is cum, the coo o' the cooscot is heeand iv oor land

13 The fig-tree nops wi' green fegs, and the varns wi' the tender grape gie a good saynt Git up, mah luv, mah bonny yan, an' cow away

14 O mah duv, that is i' the clefts o' the rock in the bye spots o' the stans, let me see thah coontenance, let me hear thah voice, foi thah voice is sweet, and thah coontenance weel-favoi'd

15 Tak us the foxes, the laahle foxes that nep the vains, for oor vains hae tender grapes

16 Mah beluvved 's mme, an' hah s his, he feeds amang the lilies

17 Till the day leeghtens, and the gloaming firts away, turn, mah beluvved, an' be thoo like a roe or a young hart on the moontans o' Bethor.

§ 335.

DUPHAM

Song of Solomon, c 2.

1 A' as t' rose uv Sharon, an' t' lilley ud valleys

2 As t' lilley amang thowrns, sees me luv amang t' dowters.

3 As t' apple-tree amang t' tees ud wood, sees me beluvved amang t' sons
Ah sat doon unnondei his shaddow, wih greet deleyght, an his frewt was sweet to mee taaste

4 He blowght mah taa banqueting-hoose, an his banner ower mah was luv.

5 Stay mah wih flaggons, cumfuit mah wih apples for a' seek uv luv

6 His left kneaf's unnondei me heed, and his reet kneaf duth cuddle mah

7. Ah charge ye, O ye dowters uv Jerewsalem, be t' roes, an be to heynds ud field, at ye stur nut up, nei waaken me luv, till he please

8 T' voice uv me beluvved ' behowld, he cumeth lowpin atoppa to moontens skippin atoppa t' hills

9 Me beluvved is leyke a roe er a young hart. behowld, he stands ahunt our wo, he lewks furth at t' windows, showen hussel through t' lattice.

10 Me beluvved spak, an' sed tummah, Rise up, me luv, me bonnier, an cum away

11 Fer, lo, t' winter 's past, t' rain 's owei an gaane

12 T' flooers appear atoppa t' earth, t' time ud singin uv burds is cum, an t' voice ud turtle 's hard iv our land

13 T' feg-tree puts furth hin green fegs, an t' veynes wud tender grape give a good smell Aaise, me luv, me bonnier, an cum away

14 O me dove, 'ats id cleft ud rock, id secret plaases ud stans, let mah see thee coontenance, let mah hear thee voice, fer sweet's thee voice, and thee coontenance 's cumley.

15 Tak us t' foxes, t' little foxes at spoils t' veynes fer our veynes hev tender grapes

16. Me beluvved is meyne, an a as his he feeds amang t' lillies

17. Until day brick, an shadows flee away, turn, me beluvved, an be thah leyke a roe er a ugyon that atoppa t' moontens uv Bethor.

This is the dialect of St. John's Chapel in Weardale; Weardale being the only district where it is spoken with purity. In different parts, too, of the Dale there are slight differences
Didst thou do it = dud tu dud = did te did = wilt thou do it = wull tu dud = wilt te did, the former about St. John's Chapel, the latter in the villages of East Gate and Stanhope.

§ 336.

NORTHUMBERLAND.

*Newcastle By J. P. Robson.**Song of Solomon, c. 2*

- 1 Aw's the rose o' Sharon, an' the lily o' the valleys
- 2 Like the lily among thorns, se is maw luv among the dowtois
- 3 Like the apple-tree among the trees o' the wud, se is maw beluv'd among the sons Aw sat doon anun'er his shador wi' greet plishur', an' his foot wis sweet te me teyst
- 4 He biowt us te the feastin'-hoose, an' his flag owe! us wis luv
- 5 Stop us wi' tankerts, cumfort us wi' apples for aw's seek o' luv
- 6 His left han's anun'er me heed, an' his reet han' diz cuddle me
- 7 Aw change ye, O ye dowtois o' Jeruzalum, be the roes an' the steps o' the field, that ye divent stoi, nor weykin maw luv tiv he likes
- 8 The voice o' maw beluv'd! lucka, he cums lowpin' on the moontins, skippin' owe! the hills
- 9 Maw beluv'd 's like a roe or a young buck seest the', he stan's ahint wor wa', he loks oot it the windis, an' shows hissel' throo the stanchils
- 10 Maw beluv'd' spok', an' says te me, Get up, maw luv, maw bonny yen, an' let 's away!
- 11 For, lucka! the wintor's past, an' the rain's a' owe! an' geyn,
- 12 The flooers cums oot o' the yearth, the time for the singin' o' burds is cum, an' the coom' o' the tortle is huid i' wor land;
- 13 The feg-tree puts oot her green fegs, an' the vines wi' the tendor grapes gies a fine smell Get up, maw bonny yen, an' howay
- 14 O maw duve, that 's i' the cliffs o' the rock, in the hidin'-pleyces o' the stans, let 's see thaw feyce, let 's hear thaw voice, for thaw voice is sweet, an thaw feyce is cumley
- 15 Catch us the foxes, the little foxes, that spoils the vines, for wor vines hes tendor grapes
- 16 Maw beluv'd 's mine, an' aw's his, he feeds among the lilies
- 17 Till the day lectins, an' the shadis flees away, torn, maw beluv'd, an' be thoo like a roe, or a young buck on the moontins o' Bethor

*Newcastle By J. G. Foster**Song of Solomon, c. 2*

- 1 Aw's the rose o' Sharon, an' the lily o' the valleys
- 2 As the lily among thorns, sae is maw luv among the dowtors
- 3 As the apple-tree among the trees o' the wud, sae is mah beluived among the sons Aw sat doon anun'er his shadow wi' greet delect, an' his fruit was sweet te maw t'yst
- 4 He biowt me te the bankittin' hoose, an' his bannor owe! me was luv.

5. Stay me wi' flagons, cumfort me wiv apples for aw's seek o' luiv
- 6 His left hand is anun'er maw heed an' his reet hand diz cuddle me
- 7 Aw change ye, O ye dowlors o' Joruzalum, b' the roes, an' b' the hunds o' the field, that ye stou nut up noi w'yeken maw luiv tiv he likes
- 8 The voice o' maw beluved ' seesta', he comes lowpin' upon the moontins, skippin' over the hulls
- 9 Maw beluved is like a roe or a young hart seesta', he stan's ahint wor wa', he larks oot at the windis, showin' hus-sel throo the latus
- 10 Maw beluved sp'yek, an' said to me, Get up, maw luiv, my bonny yen, an' how'way
- 11 Foi, luksta'! the wintor is past, the iam is ower an' g'yen,
12. The fluics cum oot on the yearth, the time o' the singin' o' burds is cum, an' the coom' o' the tortle is heard i' wor land,
- 13 The feg-face puts oot her green fegs, an' the vines wi' the tendor grape gie a gud smell Get up, maw luiv, maw bonny yen, an' how way
- 14 O maw dur, that is i' the clefs o' the rock, i' the secret plycees o' the stars, let me see thy coontenance, let me hear thy voice, for thy voice is sweet, an' thy coontenance is cumly
- 15 T'yek luz the foxes, the litle foxes, that spoil the vines, for wor vines hae tendor grapes
- 16 Maw beluved's mine, an' aw's hus he feeds amang the lilies
- 17 Till the day leetins, an' the shadis flee away, torn, maw beluved, an' be thoo like a roe or a young hart on the moontins o' Bethoi

The so-called burr seems to be at its *maximum* on the Tyne, being softened about Morpeth, Alnwick, and Rothbury. As you approach Berwick, other changes occur. On the other hand, the natives of North and South Shields pronounce the *r* like the majority of Englishmen, omitting it when final—*Aw's gan owa' te wetta wi' me brotha' iv a sculla' = I am going over the water with my brother in a sculler.*

In a town near Newcassel, a pitman did dwell,
Wiv his wife named Peg, a tom-cat, and himsel,
A dog called Cappy, he doated upon,
Because he was left by his great uncle Tom
Weel bried Cappy, famous au'd Cappy,
Cappy's the dog, Talliho, Talliho!

His tail pitcher-handled, his colour jet black,
Just a foot and a half was the length of his back,
His legs seven inches fier shoulderis to paws,
And his lugs like twe dockins, hung owie his jaws
Weel bried Cappy, famous au'd Cappy,
Cappy's the dog, Talliho, Talliho!

For huntin' of varmin reet cliver was he,
And the house fier a' robbers his baird wad keep free
Could baith fetch and carry, could sit on a stool,
Or, when fussy, wad hunt water-rats in a pool.
Weel bried Cappy, &c.

As Ralphy to market one morn did repair,
 In his hatband a pipe, and weel combed was his hair,
 Ower his arm hung a basket—thus onwairds he speels,
 And enter'd Newcassel wi' Cap at his heels

Weel breed Cappy, &c

He hadn't got further than foot of the side,
 Afore he fell in with the dog-killin' tribe,
 When a highwayman fellow slipp'd round in a crack,
 And a thump on the skull laid him flat on his back !

Down went Cappy, &c

Now Ralphy, extomsh'd, Cap's fate did repine,
 While its eyes like twee little pearl buttons did shine,
 He then spat on his hands, in a fury he grew,
 Cries, "' Gad smash ! but ai'l hev settsatisfaction o' thou,
 " For knockin' down Cappy," &c.

Then this grim-luken fellow his bludgeon he raised
 When Ralphy eyed Cappy, and then stood amazed,
 But fearin' aside him he might be laid down,
 Threw him into the basket, and bang'd out o' town

Away went Cappy, &c

He breathless gat hyem, and when liftin' the sneek,
 His wife exclaim'd, " Ralphy ! thou's sunn gettin' back,"
 " Getten back !" replied Ralphy, " ar wish ar'd ne'er gyen,
 In Newcassel, they re fellin' dogs, lasses, and men.

They've knocked down Cappy, &c

" If aw gan to Newcassel, when comes woi pay week,
 Ai'l liken him again by the patch on his cheek,
 Or if ever he enters woi toon wiv his stick,
 We'll thump him about till he's black as au'd Nick,

For killin' au'd Cappy," &c

Wiv tears in her een, Peggy heard his sad tale,
 And Ralph wiv confusion and terror grew pale,
 While Cappy's transactions with grief they talk'd o'er,
 He creeps out o' the basket quite bisk on the floor !

Weel done, Cappy ! &c

Song of Solomon, c 2

- 1 Aw's the rose o' Shaion, an' the lily o' the valleys
- 2 As the lily among thorns, sae is maw luv among the dowtors
- 3 As the apple-tree among the trees o' the wud, sae is maw beluv'd among
 the sons Aw sat doon anun'er his shadow wi' greet deleet, an' his fruit was
 sweet te maw t'yest
- 4 He browt me to the bankatting-hoose, an' his banner ower me was luv
- 5 Stay me wi' flagons, cumfort me wiv apples for aw's seek o' luv
- 6 His left hand is anun'er maw hee'd, an' his reet hand diz cuddle me
- 7 Aw charge ye, O ye dowtors o' Jeruzalum, b' the roses, an' b' the hunds o'
 the field, that ye stor nut up nor w'yeken maw luv tiv he likes.

8 The voice o' maw beluved ' sees'ta, he comes lowpin' upon the moontins, skappin' ower the hulls

9 Maw beluved is like a 1oe, or a young hart sees'ta, he stan's ahint wor wa', he lunks oot at the windis, shewing hus-sel through the lattis

10 Maw beluved sp'yek, an' said te me, Get up, maw luv, my bonny yen, an' how 'way

11 For lunksta' ' the winter is past, the rain is ower an' g'yen,

12 The fluers cum oot on the yearth, the time o' the singin' o' burds is cum, an' the coom o' the tortle is heard i' wor land

13 The feg-tree puts oot her green fegs, and the vines wi' the tendor grape gie a gud smell. Get up, maw luv, maw bonny yen, an' how 'way.

14 O maw duv, that is i' the clefts o' the rock, i' the seciet ply'eces o' the stairs, let me see thy coontenance, let me hear thy voice; for thy voice is sweet, an' thy coontenance is cumly

15 Tyek huz the foxes, the hitle foxes, that spoil the vines, for wor vines hae tendor grapes

16 Maw beluved's mine and aw's hus he feeds among the lilies

* 17 Till the day leetins, an' the shades flee away, torn, maw beluved, an' be thoo like a 1oe or a young hart on the moontins o' Bethor

NORTH NORTHUMBERLAND

Song of Solomon, c. 2

1 Aw's the rose o' Sharon, an' the hily o' the valleys

2 Like a hily mang thorns is maw luv among the dowtors

3 Like a napple-tree mang the trees o' the wud, is maw luv among the sons.
Aw sets me ways doon anunder his shador wiv a leet heart, an' his foot teasted vella nice

4 He fetcht us intiv his feastin-hoose, an' his flag abeun us wis luv

5 Haud us up wi' drinkin-cups, cumfort us wiv apples, for aw's bad o' luv

6 His left han's anunder me heed, an' his reet hand cuddles us

7 Noo aw charge ye, O ye dowtors o' Jezuz'lum, be the bucks an' the does o' the field, that ye dinnet stor, to loose up maw luv, till he hes a mind

8 Wheest! it's the voice o' maw luv! Leuk! thondor he cum's lowpin' upon the moontins, an' skurryin' ower the hulls

9 Maw troo-luv's like a buck or leish deer assa! he's stannin' ahint wor wa', he's leukin' oot o' the windors, an' showin' hussel thro' the panes

10 Maw troo-luv spak', he says to me, Get up, maw pet, maw canny lass, an' cum the ways,

11. For, seenoo, the winter's past, an' the rain's awl ower an' gean,

12 The fluers is abeun the grund, the time for the singin' o' burds is here; an' the churm o' the tottleduve is hnd i' wor country-side

13. The feg-tree shuts oot hun green fegs, an' the vines wi' the young greaps hes a nice smell Get up, maw pet, maw bonny lass, an' cum the ways

14 O maw duve, that's i' the holes o' the rock, i' the ludin'-pleaces i' the steps, let's see thaw feace, let's hear the talk, for thaw voice is sweet, an' thaw feace is luvsum

15 Get a-had o' the foxes, the weeny foxes, that spoils wor greaps for wor vines hes bud weakly greaps

16 Maw troo-luv belongs te me, an' aw tiv hum, he feeds among the lilies

17. Tiv sike time is the day daws, an' the clouds is a' flown, torn aboot tiv us, maw luv, an' be thoo like a buck or leish steg on the moontins o' Bethor

§ 337. The following specimens of the Lowland Scotch are given for the purpose of comparison.

(1)
By J. P. Robson.
Song of Solomon, c. 2

- 1 I am the rose o' Sharon, an' the lily o' the vallies
- 2 Like the lily amang thoins, sae is my love amang the lasses
- 3 Like the apple-tree amang the trees of the wud, sae is my lo'ed ane amang the laddies I sat me doon anunder his shadow wi' muckle glee, an' his frut was sweet in my mou'.
- 4 He biang me til the wassail-ha', an' his banner aboon me was love
- 5 Haud me up wi' stoups, mak' me glad wi' apples, for I am forfarn wi' love
6. His left han' is aneath my heed, an' his richt han' kriutles me
- 7 I wann ye, O ye dochters o' Jerusalem, by the raes an' the hines o' the field, that ye starna up, nor wauken my love until his an pleesur'.
- 8 The voice o' my an love' wow, he comes loupin' upo' the moontans, skippin' upo' the hills
- 9 My an love is lke til a rae or a young deer, see! he's stan'im' ahint oor wa', he keeks oot o' the windows, an' kythes at the lattis-panes
- 10 My lo'ed ane spak, an' quo' he, Get up, my love, my bonnie thing, an' come awa'
- 11 Foi, do ye no ken, the winter's awa, an' the ian is a' ower an' gane?
- 12 The flow'is spring oot o' the grund, the time's come for the sang o' the budies, an' the coo o' the cushat is heard a' ower the lan'
- 13 The feg-tree puts oot her green fegs, an' the vines wi' the wee grapes gie oot a gud smell Get up, my love, my comely ane, an' come awa'!
- 14 O my doo, thou art in the cliffs o' the rock, in the hidin' corners o' the stairs, let me ken the sicht o' thy face, let me hear thy voice, for thy voice is tunefu', an' thy face is winsome
- 15 Tak' us the tods, the wee tods that waste the vines, for oor vines ha'e but puly grapes
16. My lo'ed ane is my an, an' I am his he feeds amang the lilies
- 17 Until the day daw, an' the cluds fit awa', turn til me, my lo'ed ane, an' be thou lke til a rae or a young deer on the moontans o' Bether

(2.)
Anonymous
Song of Solomon, c. 2.

- 1 I am the rose o' Sharon, an' the lillie o' the dales
- 2 As the lillie amang thoins, sae is my love amang the dochters
- 3 As the apel-tree amang the trees o' the wud, sae is my belovet amang the sons I sat doon anoonder his shaddie wi' muckle delicht, an' his frute was sweet t' my piien
- 4 He brocht me to the wassail-ha', an' his banner ower me was love
- 5- Stay me wi' stowps, comfert me wi' apels, for I am ill o' love
- 6 His left han' is anoonder my heed, an' his richt han' infaulds me
- 7 I wann ye, O ye dochters o' Jerusalem, that ye stu na up, nor wauken my love tull he likes
- 8 The vyce o' my belovet' behauld, he comes lowpin' on the muntans, skippin' on the hulls

9 My beloved is like ae rae or ae young hert behauld, he stan's ahint oor wa', he looks furth at the wannocks, shawm' lussel' through the bams.

10 My beloved spak', an' said t' me, My love, my fau anc, rise up, an' come awa'

11 Foi, behauld, the wunter is bye, the ram is ower an' gane

12 The flooers kythe on the yud, the season o' the singin' o' buds is come, an' the vyce o' the cooshat is heard in oor lan'.

13. The fig-tree pits furth her green figs, and the vines, wi' their wee bit grapes, gie ae gudely smell Rise up, my love, my fau anc, an' come awa'

14 O my doo, thoo aint in the cliffs o' the rock, in the saciet places o' the crannies, let me see thy face, let me hear thy vyce, for thy vyce is sweet, an' thy face is winsome

15 Catch us the tods, the wee tods, that spile the vines, for oor vines hae wee bit grapes

16 My beloved is mine, an' I am his he feeds among the lilies

17 Tull the day daw', an' the shaddies flee awa', turn ye, my beloved, an' be thoo like ae rae, or ae young hert on the muntans o' Bether

It is safe to say that the preceding group contains everything that can be called Northumbrian or Northern. On the southern frontier it contains something more.

CHAPTER VIII.

EXISTING DIALECTS.—MIDDLE GROUP.—EAST-ANGLIAN DIVISION.

§ 338. FROM the extreme limits of the group which we have named *Northumbrian*, we, now, turn southwards and eastwards; to Norfolk, Suffolk, and Essex (?). The dialects of the first two of these counties constitute the division called East-Anglian. Whether it include Essex is another question. I consider that it does. Those, however, who lay much stress upon the difference between Saxon and Angle will demur to this. So, also, will those who agree with me in carrying the Essex form of speech as far west as Herts, but would, also, either throw the Essex into some other division, or make a separate class of it. The leading fact, however, is this, viz., that, from the Wash to the Nore, the dialects graduate into each other; the indistinctness of frontier on the west being no more than what we expect. Whether the term *East-Anglian* should apply to an East-Saxon county is a verbal, rather than a real, question.

§ 339.

NORFOLK.

Song of Solomon, c 2

1 The rose o' Shaaion I em, and the hly o' the walleys
 2 All the same as the hly amunst thorns, so is my love amunst the darteis
 3 All the same as th' apple-tree amunst the tices o' the wud, so is my
 beloved amunst the sons I set myself down ondermane his shadder wi' giate
 delight, and his fiut wor swate to my hkin'

4 He browt me to the faastru'-house, and his bander atop on me was love
 5 Stay me wi' gotches, comfort me wi' apples, for I em cothy wi' love
 6 His left hand is ondermane my hid, and his right hand du cuddle me
 7 I charge yow, O ye darteis o' J'rusal'm, b' the 10es and b' the hmds o'
 the fild, that yow shawn't stu up, nei yit wake up my love till so bein' as he
 plaze

8 The wice o' my beloved' I sã look how he du come a lopn' apun the
 mountins, a skippin' apun the hills

9 My beloved, he is liken onto a 10e oi a young hart look' how 'e stand
 behind ou wall, he look out at ou winderis, a showin' hussell out at the case-
 mmt

10 My beloved, he spook, and he sã onto me. Rise up, my love, my feer
 un, and come awãh

11 For, I sã, the winter t' be past, and the rain 'tis over and goin

12 The flowers they be sin apun the anth, the tune o' the bads singin' is
 come, and the cum' o' the ingdow is heard in ou land

13 The fig-tree du putt out her green figs, an' the wine-trees wi' the tander
 grape gve a good smell Git up, my love, my feer un, and less come awãh

14 O my dow, that's in the cricks o' the rocks, in the sacret places o' the
 stars, let me see yer countenance, let me hear yer wice, for yã wice t' be
 sweet, and yar countenance tãd

15 Ketch us the foxes, the leetle foxes, as spile the wine-trees, for ou
 wine ha' tander grapes

16 My beloved is mine, and I em his, he du feed amunst the liles

17 Ontil the dã brako, and the shadders fly away, tarn, my beloved, be yow
 liken onto a 10e oi a young hart apun the mountins o' Bethel

§ 340

SUFFOLK.

A Letter, written 1814 From Halluell

Dear Friend,

I was axed some stounds agoon by Billy P our 'sesser at Mulladen to
 make inquisition a yeow if Master—had paid-in that there money into the
 Bank Billy P he faie, knenda, unasy about it, and when I see him at
 Church to day he sah Timmy, says he, prah ha yeow wrot—so I, knenda, wot t
 um off—and I sah, says I, I heent had from Squire D— as vit, but I dare
 sah, I shall afore long—So prah write me some lnes, an send me walid,
 wutha the money is paid a' nae I dont know what to make of ou Mulladen
 folks, nut I—but somehow or another, they're allus in dibles, an I'll be 10t

if I dont begin to think some on em all tahn up sealy at last, an as to that there fulla—he grow so big and so purdy that he want to be took down a peg—an I'm glad to hare that you yeow gut it em properly at Wickham I'm goom to meet the Mulladen folks a' Friday to go a bounden, so prah write me wahd afore themnum, an let me know if the money be pahd, that I may make Billy I' asy How stammun cawd tis nowadays—we heent no feed no where, an the stock run bloem about for wittles, just as if twa winter.—yeow mah pend ont twool be a mortal bad season for green geese, an we shant ha no spring wahs afore Soom fair I chpt my ship last Tuesday (hst a' me—I mean Wensday) an tha scinge up then backs so nashunly I'm afeard they're wholly styd—but 'stius God tis a strange cowl time I heent got no news to tell ye, only we're all stammunly set up about that there coin bill—some folks dont fare ta like it no matters, an the sah there was a nashun noise about it at Noiry last Saturday was a fauntit The mob they got thice efus, a larmer, a squire, an a mulla, an strus yeowic alive they hung um all on one jib—but—so folks sah Howsomever we are all quite enough here, case we fare to think it for our good If you see that there chap Hanny, give my service to em.

§ 341

ESSEX.

Cock-a-Beris Hill From Halliwell

1

At Tottum's Cock-a-Beris Hill
A sput suppass'd by few,
Where toddlers ollis hant to eye
The proper pitty view

2

Where people crake so ov the place
Leas ways, so I've hard say,
An 'hum its top yow, saiteny,
Can see a monsus way

3

'Bout this sad Hill, I wariant ya,
Their bog it niver ceases,
They'd growl shud yow not own that it
Beats Danbury's au' to pieces

4

But no sense ov a place, some think
Is this here hill so hugh,—
Cos there, full oft, 'tis nation coad,
But that don't argufy

5

Yit, if they their inquisitions maake
In winter time, some will
Condemn that place so no great shakes,
Where folks ha' the coad-chill!

6

As sun'dy 'haps, when nigh the sput
 May ha' a wish to see 't.—
 From Mauldon town to Keldon 'tis,
 An' 'gin a four ideler,

7

Where up the road to load it goes
 So lugsome an' so stiff,
 That hosses mosly kitch a whop,
 From drivers in a tiff

8

But who'd pay a boss while tugging on '
 None but a litchy elf
 Tis nigh on plam etch chap desaves
 A clumsy thump himself

9

Haul'd o'er the coals, sich fellars e'er
 Shud be, by Martin's Act,
 But, then, they're rayther muggy oft,
 So with um we're not zaet

10

But thussins, 'haps, to let um on
 Is wrong, becos etch catter,
 If made to smart, his J's and Q's
 He'd mune for ever after

11

At Cock-a-Bevis Hill, too, the
 Wiscacies show a tree,
 Which if you clamber up, besure,
 A piecious way yow see

12

I don't think I cud chime it now,
 Aldoe I ustet cud,
 I shudn't waisley loike to moy,
 For gueleh cum down I shud.

13.

My head 'ood swim,—I 'oodn't do it
 Not even for a gunny
 A naanbou ax'd me, tother day,
 'Naa, naa,' says I, "nut gunny"

14

At Cock-a-Bevis Hill, I was
 A-goon to tell the folks,
 Some wares back—when I bargun—
 In peace there lived John Noakes

§ 342. The word *kienda* = *kind-of* = *so to say*, which has been made familiar to most of us by Dickens's Yarmouth boatman, is, pre-eminently, East-Anglian. In North Frisian, *kander* may be found in a similar sense. I am not, however, prepared to commit myself to the identity; still less to base any further argument upon it. At the same time, the fact of *kander* being Frisian deserves notice.

The Essex, as well as the Suffolk, dialect (*e. g.* the word *inquisition*) shows an element, which, whether we call it Cockney or Slang, is artificial.

The geographical (we might almost call them the geometrical) relations of Essex to Middlesex and Kent (see § 324) must be noticed. The boundaries meet at an acute angle, with the widening Thames between them. London is a *point*; at which East Anglia, the Saxon, and the Mercian areas meet; or (changing the expression) one to which they converge.

CHAPTER IX

PROVINCIAL FORMS OF SPEECH AT PRESENT EXISTING —MERCIAN GROUP.—ITS NEGATIVE CHARACTER —SPECIMENS, ETC.

§ 343 THE last of our groups now comes under notice. It is a difficult one; the nature of the difficulties connected with it being easily anticipated. Its characteristics are few: its affinities quaquaversal, *i. e.* it touches something, and graduates into it, on every side. We can only get at its boundaries approximately. Thus—

1. The counties of Herts, Bucks (with a part of Berks), Northampton, Warwick, Oxford (part), Worcester (part), Leicester, Rutland, Lincoln, Cambridge, Hunts, Beds, contain the group in question, and something more.

2. A line drawn from London to Wisbeach, thence continued along the coast to a level with the city of Lincoln, then continued through Lincoln and Leicester to Warwick, and thence produced to London, contains nothing but what belongs to the group in question, but without containing the whole of it.

· § 344 ·

LINCOLNSHIRE.

*Parts about Lincoln**Neddy and Sally*

‘ Cunn, Sall, it’s time we started now,
 Yon’s Farmer Haycock’s lasses iredy,
 And Maister ses he’ll feed the cow ”

“ He didn’t say so,—did he, Neddy ? ”

“ Yees that he did, so make thee haste,
 And git thee sen made smait and pritty .
 Wi yaller ribbon round thee waist
 The same as owd Squire Lowden’s Kitty ”

“ And I’ll goa fetch my sister Bess,
 I’m saitin sewer she’s up and iredy ,
 Cum gie’s a buss, thou can’t do less ’
 Says Sally, “ Noa thou musn’t, Neddy ”

* * * *

“ See, yonder’s Bess a cummin cross
 The fields, wi lots o’ lads and lasses,
 All aaim be aaim and brother Joss
 A shouting to the foaks as passes ”

“ Odds dickens, Sall, we’ll hev a spree,
 Me heart’s as light as ony feather ,
 There’s not a chap dust russel me,
 Not all the town’s chaps put together ”

The farmer’s wife came smiling in,
 Her heart was ever light and gay,
 T’o caution Ned she did begin—
 “ Be sewer thou doan’t get drunk to-day ’

“ And mind th’ money, dust thee hear,
 And keep from out the sowdgers’ way ,
 Thou recollects this time last year,
 When thou the *smait* was forced to pay ”

“ Yees, that I do,” responded Ned,
 “ But I’ll tek care, mum, for the fewer ,
 ‘Twas all through wot the saigent sed,—
 Gosh, dang hum, now he’ll find I’m cuter ! ”

~ * † †

Followed by all, the rustic flame
 Was rous’d, Ned marched through all the bustle
 And whispered, “ Sall, keep howd my aerm,
 And stick to me close as a mussel.”

" And we'll goa see the shows set out,
 See all the siglits that's worth while seem ,
 Mun, dall you lass, I eue for nowt,
 I don't a-faux as I'm a bein "

Sally most cheerfully comphed,
 And to the shows their way were hyng ,
 Ned caught the canvas and he cried.
 " I'm blamb'd but yon's a wild hirse flyng "

" Lawd look besides there's lots o' things,
 All striped about in shape o' donkeys ,
 I wonder wots them there wi' wings,
 See what a precious load of monkeys !"

* * * *

Deliberating thus awhile,
 On future joys—to fancy seeming,
 Exultingly Ned with a smile
 Exclaimed " cum, wakken, are you dreamin ?"

" Consarn you, Sall, I'm reight you see,
 My toes and knees seems all a-dingle ,
 Let's goa and dance, and merry be,
 It's the last statutus we'll be singlo "

* * * *

Inspung ale, impassioned love,
 How many dangers ye are scorning ,
 The sequel of my tale shall prove
 " Ned, let's goa home " " I weant till mornin "

" I feel mysen just reight and staeight,
 For owt you like, to kick or russel,
 Hey yon's a town's chap wants to feight ?
 Hiae's up my hat, I'll show him mussel."

The crowd gave way and from behind,
 The chap advanced, a Morgan rattler ,
 Ned shouts for joy, says, " niver mind,
 Let him cum on, mun, I'm his mattler "

In a green grass field which lay by
 The ring was form'd, the fight began ,
 Each deals his blows most lustly,
 But Ned's proclaimed the conqu'ring man

Sally around him begs and prays,
 While tears fast from her eye-lids start,
 That all for home should go their ways,
 Without the woeful task to part

Thus she implored, and he rephe'd,
 " Wot meagrums at th' up to, Sally "
 It's nowt noa use, I weant be tied,
 Goa home thec sen, doant dilly dally "

"Nay, promise me that thou'll goa home,
 Wi' Joss and Bess and all the tuther's,
 But let's goa home just as we cum,
 I've got some fannings for our mother's"

"Well, well I will, but here's a spice,
 The Sowdgers are all fisk and meiny,
 There's some o' them I know knows me
 I'll goa shak hands wi' Saigent Bury"

"It's twelvemonths since, this blessed day
 Me poor owd Saigent eyed and ogled,
 I'd one pound one or more to pay,
 Blam'd I was nicely connogled"

With ight good-will the Seigcant greets,
 And tells him many a tale and story,
 Boldly he marches through the streets
 With sword in hand he'll die for glory!

Poor Sally's hopes had been that morn,
 So buoyant, confident, and light,
 That evening saw her wretched, shorn
 Of all, on all her hopes a blight

With many a lingering look behind
 She lonely left the Statute Fan,
 Hoping that Ned his home would find,
 And thus she thought would end her care

Ned thought not of his home and Fan,
 The Sergeant's scarf he had untwisted.
 And bound it on with martial aim,
And Ned, poor honest Ned, was 'listed'

*Parts about Fellingham By the present Author
 Song of Solomon, c 2*

- 1 I'm the roose of Sharon and the lily of the valleys
- 2 Like the lily amunst the thorns, so is my loovv* amunst the dahters
- 3 As the apple-tree amunst the trees of the wood, so is my sweetheart
 amunst the sons I set mysen down undeeneen his shadder wi' great delight
 and his fruit wor sweet to my taste
- 4 He brought me to the booth, and his flag over me wor loovv
- 5 Set me up with tankards, comfort me wi' apples, for I'm badly of
 loovv
- 6 His left hand is undeeneen my head, and his right hand embraaces
 me
- 7 I gave ye notice, o ye dahters of Jerusalem, by the ices and by the hinds
 of the field, not to stur, nor yet to wake up my loovv while he wants.
- 8 The voice of my loovv! Lee-ye-here! how he comes a-leapin uppon the
 mountains, a-skipping uppon the hills
- 9 My loovv is loike a roe or a young hart Lee-ye-here! he stands behind
 our wall, a-shewing of lussen

* This oo, followed by two consonants, is sounded as the *o* in *full*

10 My loovv, he spoke, and sed to me, rise oopp, my fair un, an coomm away

11 For, lee-ye, the winter is past, the ram is over and gone.

12 The flowers show themselves on the earth, the toome of the buds for singin is come, and the note of the wood-pigeon is heard in our land

13 The fig-tree puts out its green figs, and the grape-vines with the mellow grape give a good smell. Get up, my loovv, my fair, and coomm away

14 Oh my doovv that's in the cracks of the rocks, in the secret places of the steggars, let me see thy face, let me hear thy voice, for yai voice is sweet, and yar faace coommly

15 Tek us the foxes, the little foxes, as spoil the vines, for ar vines ha tender graapes

16 Moy luuvv is moia, and I am luzzen He is fothered amunst the lilies.

17 While the day break, and the shadows flee away, turn, moy luuvv and be louke a yoonng roe on a hart uppon the mountms of Bethel

If these specimens give us but little in the way of provincialism, less would be given in specimens from Huntingdon, Northamptonshire, or Bedfordshire, for, with these as the centre of the group, we have the Mercian form of speech at its *maximum* of distance from the East Anglian on the east, the West Saxon on the south, and the Northumbrian on the north. It becomes less typical in Warwickshire, and North Oxon and less typical in Cambridgeshire, on the borders of Suffolk. Upon the whole, however, the above-named counties are central to a group containing Cambridgeshire and Warwickshire on the one side, and Lincolnshire and Herts on the other: its characteristics being *negative*.

CHAPTER X.

ISOLATED DIALECTS.—LITTLE ENGLAND BEYOND WALES.

§ 345. *Isolated Dialects* means English dialects *not in continuity with the mother-tongue*.

In Pembrokeshire, and a part of Glamorganshire, the language is English rather than Welsh. The following extracts from Higden have effected the belief that this is the result of a Flemish colony. "*Sed et Flandrenses, tempore Regis Henrici Primi in magna copia juxta Mailros ad orientalem Angliæ plagam habitationem pro tempore occipientes, septimam in insula gentem fecerunt: jubente tamen eodem rege, ad occidentalem Walliæ partem, apud Haverford, sunt translati Sicque Britannia—his—nationibus habitatur in presenti—Flandrensibus in West Wallia*"

A little below, however, we learn that these Flemings are distinguished by their origin only, and not by their language. — "*Flandrenses vero qui in Occidua Walliæ incolunt, dimissa jam barbarie, Saxonice satis loquuntur.*"—Higden, edit. Gale, p 210.

§ 346 The following Vocabulary collected by the Rev. J. Collins,* in the little peninsula of Gower, contains no exclusively Flemish elements

Angletouch, <i>uorm</i>	Hamiach, <i>harness collar made of straw</i>
Bumbagus, <i>bittern</i>	Hay, <i>a small plot of ground attached to a dwelling</i>
Blandis, <i>uon stand for a pot or kettle</i>	
Caffle, <i>entangled</i>	Kittybags, <i>garters</i>
Cammet, <i>crooked</i>	
Cloam, <i>earthenware</i>	Lipe, <i>matted basket of peculiar shape</i>
Chanel, <i>place raised in the roof for hanging bacon</i>	Letio, <i>a lout, a foolish fellow</i>
Chit, <i>to stick together</i>	Mam, <i>strong, fine (of growing crops)</i>
Deal, <i>litter, of pigs</i>	Nesseltup, <i>the small pig in a litter</i>
Dotted, <i>giddy, of a sheep</i>	Nommet, <i>a luncheon of bread, cheese, &c — not a regular meal</i>
Dome, <i>damp</i>	Noppet, <i>lively — convalescent</i>
Drieshel, <i>a flail</i>	Nipperty
Eddish, <i>wheat-stubble</i>	Ovice, <i>eaves of a building</i>
Evil, <i>a three-pronged fork for dung, &c</i>	
Firmy, <i>to clean out, of a stable, &c</i>	Plym, <i>to fill, to plump up.</i>
Floet, <i>exposed in situation, bleak</i>	Plym, <i>full</i>
Flott, <i>aftergrass</i>	Planche, <i>to make a boarded floor</i>
Flamming, <i>an eruption of the nature of erysipelas</i>	Pcoat, <i>lively, brisk</i>
Fraith, <i>free-spoken, talkative</i>	Puety, <i>to turn sulky</i>
Frithing, <i>a fence made of thorns watered</i>	Quat, <i>to press down, flatten</i>
Foust, <i>to tumble</i>	Quapp, <i>to throb</i>
Flathm, <i>a dish made of curds, eggs, and milk.</i>	Rathc, <i>early, of crops</i>
	Rciemouse, <i>but</i>
	Ryle, <i>to angle in the sea</i>
Gloy, <i>refuse straw after the reed has been taken out.</i>	Ruff, <i>an instrument for sharpening scythes</i>
Gloice, <i>a sharp pang of pain</i>	
Heavgar, <i>heavier (so also near-ger, far-ger).</i>	Seggy, <i>to tease, to provoke</i>
	Semmat, <i>stew made of skin for winnowing</i>

* First published in the *Transactions of the Philological Society*, No. 93

Shoat, <i>small wheaten loaf</i>	Slade, <i>ground sloping towards the sea</i>
Showy, <i>to clear, (of weather), (show, with termination y, common).</i>	
Soul, <i>cheese, butter, &c (as eaten with bread)</i>	Tite, <i>to tumble over</i>
Snead, <i>handle of a scythe</i>	Toit, <i>a small seat or stool made of straw</i>
Songalls, <i> gleanings—to gather songall, is to glean</i>	Toit, <i>fishy, wanton</i>
Sull, or Zull, <i>a wooden plough</i>	Vair, <i>weasel or stoat</i>
Stapmg, <i>a mode of fastening a sheep's foreleg to its head by a band of straw, or withy</i>	Want, <i>mole</i>
Susan, <i>a brown earthenware pitcher</i>	Wug, <i>a willow</i>
Sump, <i>any bulk that is carried</i>	Wimble, <i>to winnow</i>
Suant, <i>regular in order</i>	Wec-t, <i>lonely, desolate</i>
	Wash dish, <i>the titmouse</i>

§ 347. How far the parts about Mailros are English rather than Scotch ; Flemish rather than English , or how far they are in the same predicament with Little England ; again, how far the Pembrokeshire colony is in the same predicament with Gower, are separate questions—the former one for the Scotch philologue, the latter one for a philologue with more knowledge, leisure, and *data*, than the present writer

In the previous list, however, he finds nothing Flemish.

1. *Cammet* is the Keltic *lum*, for which see § 364
2. *Charnel* is Anglo-Norman ; from the Latin *caro* = *flesh*.
3. *Dreshel* is a Somerset form.

4. *Eddish* is common in Lincolnshire and elsewhere, meaning *an aftermath of hay* in a grass field In Lincolnshire what seems to be the *eddish* of the Gower vocabulary is *herbage* It means the feeding on after a crop of *corn* In some parts it is passed off as a tenant-right, more being charged when no stock has been sent into the field, on the strength of the next crop being improved thereby. It is, however, not always allowed

5. *Firny* is from the A S *fren* = *forward* A working-man at Chertsey told the late Mr Kemble that the *ground was firm*, and his statement was noted by that scholar as an Anglo-Saxonism, remarkable for being so near London. The same working-man talked of the *litton*.

6. *Flect* —In Essex *shallow*.

7. *Flumiring*.—What is the accent here ? Query *flame-ring*.

8. *Heavger*.—The change from *i* or *y* to *g* is so much rarer than the reverse, that it deserves notice. It is Slavonic—at least *g* = *h*, and *hus* is *gus* In extreme cases *climat* is *glumat*. It is found in the Berlin dialect of Germany , it is found (unless

it be merely a point of spelling) in the East-Anglian Anglo-Saxon legend of St. Edmund

9. *Hamrach*.—A part of the collar is called the *harins* by harness-makers in general.

10 Thus, the Dutch *hage*, as in the *Hague* = *garden* It is the word which has the best claim to pass as Flenish

11 *Orice* —The A. S. *efese* = *cares*.

12 *Peert* —As common in East Anglia as in the West.

13 *Planche* —Anglo-Norman.

14. *Rathe* —The positive of *rather* See below *

15. *Showy* —The -y is the Dorset -y (*q v*) Whether it be the A. S. *or* of the infinitive is another matter

16 *Soul* —Query the Irish *sowins*, word for word.

17. *Songalls* —Herefordshire An elaborate paper by Sir G Head, on the word *songle*, is to be found in the Classical Museum

18 *Susan* —A mere proper name

19 *Suant*.—Query *pursuant* = *following in order*.

20 *Toit* —As in *hoity-toity*

21 *Vair* —As in *mine-ver* = *emine, stout, weazel*.

22 *Wimble*.—Lincolnshire *wemble*, as in *wemble the bowl* = *rinse, clean, turn-out*.

CHAPTER XI.

ISOLATED DIALECTS —THE BARONIES OF FORTH AND BARGIE

§ 348. THE barony of Forth, to the south of Wexford, is bounded by the sea to the south and east, and by the barony of Bargie to the west It is said to have been colonized by the Welshmen who accompanied Strongbow in his invasion of Ireland Observe the *th* as an inflection of the plural verb

ADDRESS IN THE BARONY OF FORTH LANGUAGE

*Presented in August 1836, to the Marquis of Normanby, the Earl of Mulgrave, and Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, with a Translation of the Address in English **

To's Excellencie Consantine Harri Phypys, Earle Mulgrave, 'Lord Lieutenant-General, and General Governor of Ireland,' Ye soumissive spakeen o' our Dweller's o' Baronie Forthe, Wex-forthe

*Mu t be pleasant to th' Excellencie,
Wee, Vassales o' 'His Most Gra-
cious Majesty' Wylanne ee-fth an az*

To His Excellency Consantine Henry Phypys, Earl Mulgrave, Lord Lieutenant General and General Governor of Ireland The humble Address of the Inhabitants of Barony Forth, Wexford

*May it please your Excellency,
We, the subjects of His Most
Gracious Majesty William IV., and as*

* *Philological Transactions*, No. 81

wee verlie chote na coshe an loyale
 Dwellers na Baronie Forth, chaye na
 dicke luckae acte t'uck necher th' Ex-
 cellencie, an na plane garbe o' oure
 yola talke, wi' vengem o' coie t'gie
 oure zense o'ye glades wilke be ee
 dighte wi' yer name, and whilke wee
 canna zie, albeit o' Governere States-
 man an alike Yn cieha an ol o' whulke
 yt beeth wi' gleezom o' coie th' oure cene
 dwiteth apan ye vigeie o' dicke zove-
 reime, Wilyame ee Vouthe umere
 fose fathelhe zwae oure deis be ee
 spant, az avare ye had dicke lone voi
 name was ee kent var ee *Friend o'*
Leventie, an *He fo bruch ge neckers o'*
slaves—Mang ourzels—var wee dwi-
 teth an Ielone az oure gencial hame
 —y'ast bie' ractzom home delt tous ye
 lass ee mate var ercha vassale, ne'er
 dwith ee na dicke wai n'ar dicka.
 Wee dewitthe ye ane fose deis boc gen
 var ee gudevare o' ee lone ye zwac,
 t'avance pace an leventie, an wi'out
 vlnch ee garde o' gencial nochts an
 poplaie vaitue—Ye pace—yca wee
 ma' zai ye vaste pace whulke be eo
 stent o'er ye lone zinco th' ast ee cam,
 prooth, y'at we alane needed ye giftes
 o' gencial nochts, az be displayte bie
 ee factes o' the governmente Ye
 state na dicke die o'ye lone, na whilke
 be ne'er fash n'ar moi, albeit "Consti-
 tutional Agitation," ye wake o' hopes
 ee blighte, stampe na per zwac ee be
 rare an lightzom Yer name var
 zetch avanet avare y'e, e'en a dicke
 var hie, arent whilke ye brne o' zea,
 an ee crags o' noghane cazed nae balk
 Na oure glades ana whilke we dellte
 wi' mattoc, an zing t'oure caules wi
 plou, we heit ee zough o'ye colure o'
 pace na name o' 'Mulgrave' Wi
 'Irishmen' oure general hopes be ee
 bond, az 'Irishmen,' an az dwellers na
 coshe an loyale o' Baronie Forthe,
 w'oul dei an ercha dei, oure maunes
 an aure guries, pue var lang an hap-
 pie zins, horne o' leurnagh an ee vilt
 wi benizons, an yersel an oure zove-

we truly believe both faithful and
 loyal inhabitants of the Barony Forth,
 beg leave, at this favourable oppor-
 tunity, to approach Your Excellency,
 and in the simple garb of our old dia-
 lect to pour forth from the strength
 (or fulness) of our hearts, our strength
 (or adumation) of the qualities which
 characterize your name, and for which
 we have no words but of Governor,
 Statesman, &c. Sir, each and every
 condition, it is with joy of heart that
 our eyes rest upon the representative
 of that Sovereign, William IV, under
 whose paternal rule our days are
 spent, for before your foot pressed
 the soil, your name was known to us
 as the *Friend of Liberty*, and *He who*
broke the Fetters of the slave Unto
 ourselves—for we look on Ireland to
 be our common country—you have
 with impartiality (of hand) ministered
 the laws made for every subject, with-
 out regard to this party or that We
 behold you, one whose days devoted
 to the welfare of the land you govern,
 to promote peace and liberty—the un-
 compromising guardian of common
 rights and public virtue. The peace,
 yes, we may say the profound peace,
 which overspreads the land since your
 arrival, proves that we alone stood in
 need of the enjoyment of common
 privileges as is demonstrated by the
 results of your government The
 condition this day, of the country, in
 which is neither tumult nor confusion,
 but that constitutional agitation, the
 consequences of disappointed hopes,
 confirm your rule to be rare and en-
 lightened. Your fame for such came
 before you, even into this retired spot,
 to which neither the waters of the sea
 yonder, nor the mountains above,
 caused any impediment In our val-
 leys, where we were digging with the
 spade, or as we whistled to our
 horses in the plough, we heard in
 the word 'Mulgrave,' the sound of
 the wings of the dove of peace With

rune 'till ee zin o'oure deis be var ay
be ee go t'glade

Irishmen our common hopes are inseparably wound up, as Irishmen, and as inhabitants, faithful, and loyal, of the Barony Fonth, we will daily, and every day, our wives and our children, implore long and happy days, free from melancholy and full of blessings, for yourself and good Sovereign, until the sun of our lives be for ever gone down the dark valley of death

§ 349. The statement that these baronies give us the language of Chaucer, is either a sample of the over-statements that special inquiries into particular dialects, unaccompanied by a general view of the whole subject, lead to, or one of those pieces of rhetoric by which the minute philologue who employs himself on local dialects magnifies his subject

The language is clearly archaic the $z = s$, being West-Saxon It is needless to add that the translation is, by no means, close

As a *mixture* compare a Lunenburg Paternoster (in the Mithridates) for certain Slave localities in the seventeenth century, where the German and Slavonic mix much as the Gaelic and English mix here

CHAPTER XII

MISCELLANEOUS

§ 350. Of the Gypsy language I need only say that it is Hindú Of Coptic, Bohemian, or Wallachian (supposed elements), I am not aware that it contains any traces. Neither have many words from it mixed themselves with our standard (or even our provincial) dialects

§ 351. Thieves' Language, or that dialect for which there is no name but one from its own vocabulary, viz. Slang, serves to show that in speech nothing is arbitrary. Its compound phrases are either periphrastic or metaphorical, its simple monosyllables are generally those of the current language in an older form In this dialect I know of no notable specimens earlier than the reign of Queen Elizabeth. In the dramatic literature of that age they are rife and common. *The Roaring Girl*, *The Jolly Beggars*, amongst the plays, and Decker's *Bellman*

amongst the tracts, preserve us a copious vocabulary, similar to what we have now, and similar to what it was in Gay's time. Of this the greater part is Saxon. Here and there appears a word of Latin origin, *e.g.* *pennum* = *bread*, *caissons* = *cheese*.

§ 352. The Talkee-Talkee is a Lingua Franca based on the English, and spoken by the Negroes of Surinam.

It is Dutch rather than English, it shows, however, the latter language as an element of admixture.

*Specimen **

1 Diu deh na bakka dem holi wan biuloft na Cana na Galilea, en mamma va Jesus ben de dapeh

2 Ma dem ben kahi Jesus nanga hem discipel toe, va kom na da biuloft

3 En teh wien kaba, mamma va Jesus takki na hem, dem no habi wien morio

4 Jesus takki na hem mi mamma, hoewoiko mi habi nanga joe? Tem va mi no ben komi jette

5 Hem mamma takki na dem foetoeboi, oene doe sanmi a takki gi oene

6 Ma dem ben poetti dapeh siksi biggi watia-djoggo, na da lasi va Djoe vo kien dem innwan djoggo holi toe efi diu kanmetjes

7 Jesus takki na dem [foetoeboi], Oene foeloe dem watia-djoggo nanga watra Ed dem foeloe dem teh na moelle

8 En dan a takki na dem Oene poeloe pikanso, tjari go na giang-foetoeboi En dem doe so

9 Ma teh giangfoetoeboi tesi da watia, dissi ben tion wien, kaba o no sabi, na hoopch da wien komotto (ma dem foetoeboi dissi ben teki da watra ben sabi) a kahi da brudigom

10 A takki na hem innwan somma njoesoe va gi fossi da morio switti wien, en teh dem dingi noelle kaba, na bakka da mendre swittiwani, ma joe ben kiebi da morio boennewan

11 Datti da fossi maiki dissi Jesus ben doe, en datti ben passa ia Cana na Galilea va dem somma si hem glori En dem discipel va hem biebi na hem

1 Three days after back, them hold one marriage in Cana in Galilee, and mamma of Jesus been there

2 But them been call Jesus with him disciple, for come to that marriage

3 And when wine end, mamma of Jesus talk to him, them no have wine more

4 Jesus talk to him, me mamma how work me have with you? Time of me no been come yet

5 Him mamma talk to them footboy, ye do things he talk to ye

6 But them been put there six big water-jug, after the fashion of Jew for clean them, every one jug hold two or three firkins

7 Jesus talk to them (footboy) ye fill them water jug with water And them fill them till to mouth

8 And then he talk to them, ye pou little, carry go to giandfootboy And them do so

* *Quarterly Review*, vol. xliii

9 But when grandfootboy taste that water, this been turn wine, could he no know from where that wine come-out-of (but them footboy this been take that water well know) he call the bridegroom

10 He talk to him, every one man use of give first the more sweet wine, and when them drink enough end, after back the less sweet wine but you been cover that more good wine

11 That the first miracle that Jesus been do, and that been pass in Cana in Galilee, for them men see him glory And them disciple of him believe in him

CHAPTER XIII.

THE LOWLAND SCOTCH.

§ 353 THE term *Lowland* is used to distinguish the Scotch of the South and South-east from the Scotch of the Highlands. The former is English in its immediate affinities and German in origin, the latter is nearly the same language with the Gaelic of Ireland, and is, consequently, Celtic

The question as to whether the Lowland Scotch be a dialect of the English, or a separate and independent language, is a verbal rather than a real one

Reasons for considering the Scotch and English as *dialects* of one and the same language lie in the fact of their contiguous dialects being mutually intelligible.

Reasons for calling one a dialect of the other depend upon causes other than philological, *e g* political preponderance, literary development, and the like.

Reasons for treating the Scotch as a separate substantive language lie in the extent to which it has the qualities of a regular cultivated tongue, and a separate substantive literature—partially separate and substantive at the present time, wholly separate and substantive in the times anterior to the union of the crowns, and in the hands of Wyntoun, Blind Harry, Dunbar, and Lindsay.

Reasons for making the *philological* distinction between the English and Scotch dialects exactly coincide with the geographical and political boundaries between the two kingdoms are not so easily given. It is not likely that the Tweed and Solway should divide modes of speech as accurately as they divide laws and customs; that broad and trenchant lines of demarcation should separate the Scotch from the English exactly along the line of the Border; and that there should be no Scotch

elements in Northumberland, and no Northumbrian ones in Scotland. Neither is such the case. Hence, in speaking of the Lowland Scotch, it means the language in its typical rather than in its transitional forms; indeed, it means the *literary* Lowland Scotch, which, under the first five Jameses, was as truly an independent language, as compared with the English, as Swedish is when compared with Danish, Portuguese with Spanish, or *vice versâ*.

These (viz. those of the Swedish to the Danish, the Portuguese to the Spanish, or *vice versâ*) are the true relations between the Lowland Scotch and the English. At the same time, the early history, or *origines*, is the same for both forms of speech. So are the ethnological relations. So is the name *English*.

I have on me a pan of Lothian hips,

Shall fauer Inglis mak, and mair perfyte,

Than thou canst blabber with thy Camlück lips

§ 354 Specimen of the Old Lowland Scotch, or English of Scotland.

Wallace xi 230-262

A Lord off court, quhen he appocheyt thar,
Wnwisytly speid, withoutyn provision,
"Wallace, dar ye go fecht on our houn?"
And he said, "Ya, so the Kyng sullir me,
Or on your self, gyff ye ocht bettyr be"
Quhat will ye mai? this thing amittyt was,
That Wallace suld on to the houn pas,
The King thaam chargyt to bring him gud harnys
Then he said, "Nay, God scheild me fra sic cas"
I wald tak weid, suld I fecht with a man,
But (for) a dog, that nocht off aimes can,
I will haiff nayn, bot synglar as I ga"
A gret manteill about his hand can ta -
And his gud suerd, with him he tuk na mar
Abandonnly in barrace entryt thar.
Great chenys was wrocht in the yet with a gyn,
And pull'd it to quhen Wallace was tharin.
The wod lyoun, on Wallace quhar he stud.
Rampand he braid, for he desyrt blud,
With his rude pollis in the mantill, rocht sa.
Aukwart the buk than Wallace can him ta,
With his gud suerd, that was off burnest steill,
His body in twa it thuschyt cumuldreill
Syn to the King he ravyt in gret ne,
And said on lowd, "Was this all your desyr,
To wayr a Scot thus lychtly in to wayn?
Is thar mai doggis at ye wald yet haiff slayne?"

Go, byng tham furth, sen I mon doggas quell,
 To do byddyng, quhill that with thee duell
 It gaynd full weill I grantlat me to Scotland,
 Foi gietta deidis thair men has apon hand,
 Than with a dog in battaill to escheiff—
 At you in Fiance foi enn I tak my leill "

CHAPTER XIV

AFFILIATION OF DIALECTS—IMPERFECT CONTINUITY IN TIME

§ 355. COMPARE the present chapter with the ones which preceded it, and the question as to the relations of the modern dialects to the ancient ones will present itself—all the more forcibly for our remarks upon the difference between *simple transcription and transcription with accommodation*, all the more forcibly, too, for our cautions respecting the value of theatrical and other imitations of provincial forms of speech. As far, however, as I can form an opinion upon a point which has engaged less of my special study than almost any part of our literature or language, the results are by no means commensurate with the preliminary criticism. They appertain to the history of the written language rather than to that of our special provincialisms. They tell us that, in certain cases, certain MSS. were written in parts of the country different from those wherein the original works were composed. They tell us that, in certain cases, the authorship is referrible to a different part of the country from that of the authorship of the standard works. They tell us that, in many cases, either external or internal evidence will teach us what those parts of the country were, and in the cases of two, or more, MSS. of a single work, account for *varie lectiones* in the text. But they nowhere, or very rarely, give what we most want, viz the equivalent to such samples as those that have just been laid before the reader in the dialects of their respective localities (say) seven, six, five, four, or (even) three centuries ago. The reason for this seems to be in the fact of the earlier copyists and writers (however much the dialect of the parts wherein they either transcribed or composed might deviate from the literary or cultivated English) having rarely adopted those deviations to anything like their full extent. What they wrote was the

ordinary English with certain local characteristics. The difference between an imperfectly-educated North-Briton writing English without being very nice as to his Scotticisms, and Burns composing in his own native Doric, illustrates what I hold to be the difference between a copyist in Gloucestershire, and a writer in the Gloucestershire dialect, *i. e.* after the manner in which Burns was one in the Ayrshire dialect.

This doctrine, viz. the doctrine that MSS., however provincial in respect to their locality, are only imperfectly provincial in respect to their form of speech, is as much an inference from the language of our archæological 'citics as it is from the study of the case itself. An editor, with the text of his author before his eyes, and with that text as the main object of his attention, finds discrepancies between his MSS. which he considers extraordinary. He accounts for them by supposing a difference of either time or place in their transcription. He fixes the place by the means of certain peculiarities—pronouncing it to lie in Hants, Gloucester, or Yorkshire, as the case may be. Here his function ends. He has discovered certain facts connected with the history of his text, and has explained them as far as was necessary for his subject. The special investigator of our provincial dialects, however, looks upon the MSS. from a different point of view, *his* business being with the history of the particular form of speech before him—his business being to compare the old with the new, and to ascertain the connection between them. In doing this, he finds that what the editors, looking to the standard English, consider to have been provincial, he, looking to what is probably some extreme provincialism, treats as little more than so much ordinary English—ordinary English tinged with a certain amount of rusticity, or archaism, as the case may be, but nothing else.

§ 356. If this be the case, we should begin with each provincial dialect as we find it, treat it as a language, and work our way upwards to its oldest forms. But this we cannot often do; or rather our oldest forms are modern.

Neither can we often reverse the process. *i. e.* take an old specimen of, say, the Lincolnshire, or Devonshire forms of speech, and trace it downwards—materials being wanting.

That more, however, can be done in each direction than is done by the present writer, no one knows better than he. There is something (perhaps much) to be achieved in the elucidation of our provincial dialects during the early and

middle periods of their history. the most that is to be done being found, as is expected, on the two extremities—North and South. On the Agenbyte of Inwit something has already been said. On more than one Northumbrian MS., there is much to say. It was in the parts to the north of the Tees that the literary English had the least influence on both the original composer and the copyist. It was in the parts north of the Tees that the dialects most especially comported themselves as separate, substantive languages. In a northern MS of the *Cursor Mundi*, the writer, speaking of the legend of our Lady and Saint John, says —

In æ writte this ilke I fand,
Himself it wrought, I understand
In suthron Englys was it drawen
And I have tuined it till us awn,
Language of the northern lede
That can non othei Englis rede

Now, of the poem from which this is taken, there is a Midland MS as well as a northern one. So there is of the *Seven Sages*. So there is of several other works. in all of which, according to Mr Garnett, the northern copy is the original. The original of *Sir Tristrem* is also, according to the same authority, Northumbrian in respect to its origin, Midland in respect to its transcription.

Again—the Northumbrian of Mr. Garnett extends as far as the Forth; so that, in some degree, at least, it is Scotch; a fact which has already been alluded to.

In the Metrical Psalter of the Cotton MSS., Vespasian, D 7, of which an extract is given in the paper from which the preceding notices have been taken,* and which has been printed in full by the Surtees Society, the Northumbrian is found in its *maximum* of purity, and it differs from the English of the South, much as the Anglo-Saxon differed. In the York Mysteries, however, the northern character is abated, and the language of a great portion is “almost as much metropolitan as Northumbrian.” And this is only one case out of many.

As we approach the centre of England, this influence of the literary language increases, and it increases as we descend in time. Hence, there come long spaces both in time and place where the line of even an approximate continuity is broken. The

* Garnett *Philological Essays*, p 190

old compositions wholly lose their local character : whilst the time for compositions like those of the preceding chapters has not begun. Among these last, nine out of ten are recent and none old. In most cases they are meant to serve some special purpose, generally as philological samples. In others they are simply given as recreations or as curiosities of literature. To anything like spontaneous growth they have rarely any pretension. To conclude.—

1. They generally represent the forms of speech of the more sequestered districts and the ruder speakers whereas the older compositions, with their genuine literary character, represented the languages of the towns or monasteries

2. They generally exaggerate, rather than understate the local peculiarities, whereas the older compositions (as is implied in what has been said of the extent to which they are modified by the general literary dialect) understate rather than exaggerate them.

In a work like the present, this is as much as can be said upon a subject abounding in details. That *some* results in the way of a continuous history of each form of the older language downwards, and of the newer language upwards, in several dialects, is attainable, I am not prepared to deny. They must be the fruit, however, of much research, new materials, and subtle criticism

CHAPTER XV.

ON THE ORIGIN OF THE LITERARY ENGLISH.

§ 357. CLOSELY akin to the question as to the affiliation of dialects, is the question of the origin of the literary English. When and where did it take form? Is it some particular dialect cultivated to the exclusion of the others? Is it a mixture of more than one? The history of *all* literary languages is difficult, and that of the English is no exception. The question, however, can only be touched.

1 It is *not* the lineal descendant of the literary Anglo-Saxon, or the Anglo-Saxon of Wessex. Such presumptions as existed in favour of this view have been definitely set aside by Dr. Guest, Mr. Garnett, and others. Dr. Guest having suggested the central districts of English, *e. g.* Leicestershire, as being its birth-place.

2 It is not the *lineal* descendant of the literary Northumbrian.

This means that it is of Midland, or Mercian, rather than of Northumbrian or West-Saxon origin.

The philologues just named founded their opinion chiefly on the character of the Midland MSS. The fact of the Midland dialects being the least provincial is strong evidence in the same direction. It is not to be supposed that the labouring-men of Huntingdon and Northampton speak what is usually called *better English*, because they read more than the labouring-men elsewhere. They speak it because their vernacular dialect is most akin to that of the standard writers. Or (changing the expression) it is not so much they who approach the written language as it is the written language which approaches them.

This, however, though true to a certain extent, is not, necessarily, the whole truth. It cannot be denied that over a certain area at least, say Hertfordshire, Bucks, and Bedfordshire, the influence of London has told. If so, the question grows complex.

§ 358. Individually, then, I am scarcely prepared to call the Literary English a simple development of some Mercian form of speech; admitting, at the same time, each of the reasons just adduced: admitting, also, that, out of the writers anterior to the invention of printing, it is those of the Mercian districts, especially Robert of Bourne (in South Lincoln), whose language gives the nearest approach to the conditions out of which it could be evolved. At the same time, I simply derive it from London, and believe that, in London, it originated with the learned professions—especially the bar. The following extracts from Johnson's Preface to his Dictionary, in which it is specially stated that Sir Thomas More's English came nearest to the standard of after-times, favour this view.

A ruful lamentacion (written by master Thomas More in his youth) of the deth of quene Elisabeth mother to king Henry the eight, wife to king Henry the seuenth, and eldest doughter to king Eduard the fourth, which quene Elisabeth dyed in childbed in February in the yere of our Lord 1503, and in the 18 yere of the raygne of king Henry the seuenth

1

O ye that put your trust and confidence,
In worldly ioy and frayle prosperite,
That so lyue here as ye should neuer hence,
Remember death and loke here vppon me

Ensaumple I thynke there may no better be
Your selte wotte well that in this realme was I.
Your quene but late, and lo now here I lye.

2

Was I not boine of olde worthy lunge?
Was not my mother queene, my father kyng?
Was I not a kinges feie in mariago?
Had I not plenty of euery pleasaunt thyng?
Merefull god this is a straunge reckenyng
Rychesse, honour, welth, and auncestay.
Hath me forsaken and lo now here I ly

3

If worship myght haue kept me, I had not gone
If wyt myght haue me saued, I neded not fere
If money myght haue holpe I lacked none
But O good God what wayleth all this geie
When deth is come thy mighty messangere,
Obey we must there is no remedy,
Me hath he sommoned, and lo now here I ly

4

Yet was I late promised otherwyse,
Thus yere to lue in welth and delice
Lo where to commeth thy blandishyng promyse,
O false astrolagy and deuynatrice,
Of goddes secretes making thy selfe so wise
How true is for this yere thy prophecy
The yere yet lasteth, and lo now here I ly

A merry rest how a sergeant would learne to playe the fiere

Wyse men alway.
Affvime and say,
That best is for a man :
Dihgently,
For to apply,
The busines that he can,
And in no wyse,
To enterpryse,
An other faculte,
For he that wyl,
And can no skyll,
Is neuer lyke to the
He that hath lasfe,
The hosiers crafte,
And falleth to making shonc.
The smythe that shall,
To payntyng fall,
His thrift is well nigh done

A blacke draper,
With whyte paper,
To go to wityng scole,
An olde butler,
Becum a cutler,
I wene shall proue a fole
And an olde trot,
That can I wot,
Nothyng but kysse the cup,
With her phusick,
Wil kepe one sicke,
Tyll she have soused hym vp
A man of lawe,
That neuer sawe,
The wayes to bye and sell,
Wenyng to ryse,
By mauchaundise,
I wish to spede hym well

A marchaunt eke	All that ensue
That wyll goo seke,	Suche craftes new,
By all the meanes he may,	They drie so faire a cast,
To fall in sute,	That euermore,
Tyll he dispute,	They do therfore,
His money cleane away,	Beshewe themselfe at last
Pletyng the lawe,	This thing was tryed
For euery stawe,	And reueryed,
Shall proue a thifty man,	Here by a scrigeaunt late,
With bate and stude,	That thirfly was,
But by my life,	Or he coude pes,
I cannot tell you whan.	Rapped about the pate,
Whan an batter	Whyte that he would
Wyll go smatter,	See how he could,
In philosophy,	A litle play the ficke
Or a pedlar,	Now yf you will,
Were a medlar	Knowe how it will,
In theology,	Tale nede and ye shall here,
	æc, &c

The following, from Sir J Fortescue, Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, in the reign of Henry IV, is (considering its date) even more modern (or rather less archaic) still.

Hvt may peradventure be marveld by some men, why one Realme is a Lordshyp only *Royall*, and the Prynce thereof rulyth yt by his Law, callid *Jus Regale*, and another Kyngdome is a Lordshyp, *Royal and Politike*, and the Prynce thereof rulyth by a Lawe, callid *Jus Politicum & Regale*, sythen thes two Prynces both of egall Astate

To this dowte it may be answeryd in this manner, The first Institution of thes two Realmys, upon the Incorporation of them, is the Cause of this diversityte

When Nembroth by Might, for his own Gloire, made and incorporate the first Realme, and subduyd it to hymself by Tyrannye, he would not have it governyd by any other Rule or Lawe, but by his own Will, by which and for th' accomplishment thereof he made it And therfor, though he had thus made a Realme, holy Scripture denyyd to cal hym a Kyng, *Quia Rex dicitur a Regendo*, Whych thyng he dyd not, but oppressyd the People by Myght, and therfor he was a Tyrant, and callid *Primus Tyrannorum* But holy Writ callith hym *Robustus Venator coram Deo* For as the Hunter takyth the wyld beste for to sele and eate hym, so Nembroth subduyd to him the People with Might, to have then service and their goods, using upon them the Lordshyp that is callid *Dominium Regule tantum* After hym Delus that was callid first a Kyng, and after him his Sone Nynus, and after hym other Panymys, They, by Example of Nembroth, made them Realmys, would not have them rulyd by other Lawys than by then own Wills Which Lawys ben right good under good Prynces, and then Kyngdoms a then most resemblyd to the Kyngdome of God, which reynith upon man, rulyng him by hys own Will Wherfor many Crystyn Prynces usen the same Lawe, and therfor it is, that the Lawys sayen, *Quod Principi placuit Lex habet vigorem* And thus I suppose first beganne in Realmys, *Dominium tantum Regule*. But afterwa:d,

when Mankynd was more mansuete, and better disposyd to Vertue, Grete Communaltes, as was the Felshipp, that came into this Lond with Brute, wyllng to be unyed and made a Body Politike callid a Realme, havyng an Heed to governe it, as after the Saying of the Philosophers, every Communalte unyed of many parts must needs have an Heed; than they chose the same Brute to be their Heed and Kyng. And they and he upon this Incorporation and Institution, and onyng of themself into a Realme, ordeynyd the same Realme so to be rulyd and justyfyd by such Lawes, as they al would assent unto, which Law therfor is callid *Politicum*, and bycause it is mynystard by a Kyng, it is callid *Regale*. *Dominium Politicum dicitur quasi Regimen, plurimum Scientia sive Consilio ministratum*. The Kyng of Scotts reynith upon his Peopple by this Lawe, *vulcheet, Regimine Politico d' Regali*. And as Diodorus Syculus saith, in his Boke *de prisca Historis*, The Realme of Egypte is rulyd by the same Lawe, and therfor the Kyng therof chaungith not his Lawes, without the Assent of his Peopple. And in like forme as he saith is ruled the Kyngdome of Saba, in Felch Arabia, and the Lond of Libie, And also the more parte of al the Realms in *Africke*. Which manner of Rule and Lordship, the sayd Diodorus in that Boke, praysith gretely. For it is not only good for the Pynce, that may thereby the more sewerly do Justice, than by his owne Arbitriment, but it is also good for his Peopple that receyve thereby, such Justice as they desyer themself. Now as me seymith, it is showyd opynly ynough, why one Kyng rulyth and reynith on his Peopple *Domino tantum Regali*, and that other reynith *Domino Politico d' Regali*. For that one Kyngdome beganne, of and by, the Might of the Pynce, and that other beganne, by the Deser and Institution of the Peopple of the same Pynce.

§ 359 Whether the Literary English be the *best* English is another question. There are great violations of strictly logical grammar in all dialects; and it is doubtful whether mere cultivation diminishes either their number or their magnitude. Except on the principle that *whatever is is right*, and that rules must accommodate themselves to language (a doctrine to which the present writer has no objection, but one to which many object) rather than language to rules,—except (I say) on some principle higher than that of the ordinary grammars—the rustic who says *hisself* and *theirselves*, speaks better English than the fine writer who after saying *myself* and *ourselves* says *himself* and *themselves*.

For further illustrations of the bad grammar of the best English see the remarks on *it is me—that dress became you—it did well enough*, in the Syntax. The last of these catachrestic forms is certainly common to the learned and the vulgar. I am not sure about the second. The first, however, the vulgar, so long as they are allowed to be natural, avoid.

CHAPTER XVI.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS ON THE ENGLISH DIALECTS

§ 360. THE details of a language are one thing, the opinions concerning them another. In the previous chapter I differ in many points with the writer who first attempted a classification of our dialects—Mr. Garnett. It is needless to add, that I do so most unwillingly; the more so as I owe much of my information to him.

1 He draws a *real* distinction between the Saxons and the Angle, I a *nominal* one.

2 He classifies by definition rather than type; and, so doing, draws definite lines of demarcation where I, grouping round a centre, find nothing but the equivocal phenomena of transition

3 He lays more stress than I do on single characters.

Upon the whole, however, we agree in the direction of the affinities, and in the contents, (though not always in the value) of our classes.

§ 361. With these preliminaries I lay before the reader Mr. Garnett's groups

1. The Southern or Standard English of Kent and Surrey.

2. Western English—from Hants to Devon and the Gloucestershire Avon. Sir F. Madden's notice of the Kentish origin and Somersetshire character of the Agenbyete of Inwit modified Mr. Garnett's views upon this point. I believe that he had no objection to merging the two groups into one. On the other hand I, who have done so, have none to separating them. The fact that they graduate into each other is real; the value of the class they form is verbal.

3. Mercian—in its typical form in South Lancashire; well-marked in Cheshire; and with vestiges in Shropshire, Staffordshire, and South and West Derbyshire. It is Mr. Garnett whom I follow in connecting Shropshire with Staffordshire; Staffordshire leading northwards.

4. Anglian in three subdivisions.

a. East Anglian of Norfolk and Suffolk

b Middle Anglian of Lincolnshire, Nottinghamshire, and East Derbyshire.

c. North Anglian of Craven, and the West Riding of Yorkshire; with the exception of the Wapentake of Claro.

5. Northumbrian in Northumberland, Durham, Cumberland, Westmoreland, North Lancashire (*i. e.* Lancashire to the North of the Ribble), the North and East Ridings of Yorkshire, the Wapentake of Claro in the West Riding, and the Ainsty, or Liberties, of the City of York.

§ 362. Here the Middle Anglian is my Mercian; and I am not sure that Mr. Garnett's name is not the better one. It coincides with the *Angli Mediterranei* of Bede. and it is only because I find Mr. Kemble and other high authorities calling the language of the latter part of the *Saxon Chronicle*, which they attribute to the parts about Peterboro', *Mercian*, that I use the term. Individually, I prefer the word *Midland*.

Garnett's Mercian I connect with what he calls the North Anglian, his North Anglian with the Northumbrian. I imagine that the difference is mainly as to the value of the class. I cannot suppose that the separation of the South, from the North, Lancashire is ordinal or even generic, still less that of the West, from the East and North, Ridings of Yorkshire. I think that the South Lancashire plural in *-en* (*we callen*) has been overvalued as a characteristic.

Such are the differences of the two classifications. Considering the differences of the principles upon which they are founded, they are slight—a fact which leads to the conclusion that a rough classification of the English dialects has been arrived at.

I conclude with the two following extracts the former from Higden, the latter from Giraldus Cambiensis

1

Although the English has been descended from three German tribes, had first had amongst three different dialects, namely, Southern, Midland, and Northern. Yet, being mixed in the first instance with Danes—and afterwards with Normans—they have in many respects corrupted their own tongue, and now affect a sort of outlandish gabble. In the above threefold Saxon tongue which has barely survived among a few country people, the men of the east agree more in speech with those of the west—as being situated under the same quarter of the heavens—than the northern men with the southern. Hence it is that the Mercians or midland English partaking as it were the nature of the extremes, understand the adjoining dialects, the northern and the southern, better than those last understand each other. The whole speech of the Northumbrians, especially in Yorkshire, is so harsh and rude, that we, southern men, can scarcely understand it.

2

As in the southern part of England, and chiefly about Devonshire, the language now appears more unpolished, yet in a far greater degree—savouring of antiquity—the northern parts of the island being much corrupted by the frequent excursions of the Danes and Norwegians—so it observes more the

propriety of the original tongue and the ancient mode of speaking. Of this you have not only an argument but a certainty from the circumstance that all the English books of Bede, Rabanus, King Alfred, or any others, will be found written in the forms proper to this idiom

CHAPTER XVII.

HISTORICAL ELEMENTS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE —THE KELTIC ELEMENTS.

§ 363 THE elements out of which the language of England has been formed are—

(a) Elements referrible to the original British, or (at least) derived from times *anterior* to the Angle invasion.

(b) Angle elements

(c) Elements other than Angle, introduced *since* the Anglo-Saxon conquest

§ 364 Of the elements *anterior* to the Angle invasion, the chief are —

(a.) The Keltic, or British

(b) The Latin of the Roman, or first, period.

The Keltic elements of the present English fall into the following classes

1 Those that are of late introduction, and cannot be called original and constituent parts of the language. Some of such are the words *flannel*, from the British, and *kerne* (an Irish foot-soldier), *galore* (enough), *tartan*, *plaid*, &c, from the Gaelic branch. Some of these are scarcely incorporated

2 Those that were originally common to both the Keltic and German stocks. Some of such are *brother*, *mother*, in Keltic *brathair*, *mathair*, the numerals, &c.

3 Those that have come to us from the Keltic, but have come to us through the medium of another language. Some of such are *druid* and *bard*, the *immediate* source of which is, not the Keltic, but the Latin

4. Keltic elements of the Anglo-Norman, introduced into England after the Conquest, and occurring in that language as remains of the original Keltic of Gaul

5. Those that have been retained from the original Keltic of the island and which form genuine constituents of our language.

These fall into five subdivisions.

(a) Proper names—generally of geographical localities; as *the Thames, Kent, &c*

(b) Common names retained in the provincial dialects of England, but not retained in the current language; as *gwethull* = *household stuff*, and *gwlanen* = *flannel* in Herefordshire.

(c) Vulgarisms and slang expressions differing from the words of the preceding class by being used over the whole of England—*gunne*, as in *game* (*crooked*) *leg*—(see below, *kam*)—*bam* (*mystify*), *spree*, *tantrum*.

(d) Words used by the earlier, but not by the later writers

Kam.—In *Coriolanus* we find *This is clein kam*,—*kam* meaning *crooked, awry* In Lancashire to *cam* means to *bend* The river *Cum*, though between *Cum*-bridge and Ely it is one of the straightest rivers in England, between Grantchester and Cambridge is one of the most winding David *Gum*, the valiant Welshman who saved Henry the Fifth's life at Agincourt, was, probably, *Crooked David*.

Kendel, as in a *kendel of cats*.—Welsh *cenedd* = *family*: *ceneddu* = *to conceive*: from which we have the verb *kindle*.

Imp—Welsh *ympiaw* = *engraft*. Used in falconry for supplying a lost wing-feather

Crowl, crowder = *fiddle, fiddler*—In *Hudibras*, *Crowdero* is a proper name. In *Venantius Fortunatus* we find the words *crrutta Britanna*. Word for word this is *cithara* *

Capull, in *capul-hyde* = *horse-hide*.—Welsh *cefyll*, Irish *capul* Word for word, this is the Latin *caballus*.*

(e) Common names current in the present language—*basket*, *balderdash*, *boggle*, *barrow*, *bulton*, *bother*, *bran*, *cart*, *clout*, *coat*, *dainty*, *darn*, *fag*, (as in *fag-end*), *fleam* (*cattle lancet*), *flaw*, *funnel*, *gyve* (*fetter*), *grid* (in *grid-iron*), *gruel*, *gown*, *gusset*, *hopper* (in a mill), *kiln*, *mattock*, *mop*, *pelt*, *rail*, *rasher* (of bacon), *rug*, *solder* (or *sawder*, in metal work), *size* (*glue*), *ted* (as hay), *tenter* (in *tenter-hook*), *welt*, *wicket*, *wire*

This list, taken chiefly from Messrs. Garnett and Davies, may be enlarged—though not (I believe) to any great extent When lists of inordinate length are laid before the reader he will generally find that they are swollen with words which, even when they are Keltic, are either German or Latin (or both) as well.

* These two words seem to have come *through* the Keltic rather than *from* it

CHAPTER XVIII.

HISTORICAL ELEMENTS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.—THE LATIN OF THE FIRST, OR ROMAN, PERIOD.

§ 365 OF the Latin of the first period we have but few instances, these being chiefly geographical names Thus:—

Speenham, in Oxfordshire = *Spina*.

Devizes = *Devisæ*.

The *-coln*, in words like *Lin-corn*, = *colonia*, = *Lindi colonia*.—The rivers and brooks named *coln* are (*perhaps*) the rivers or brooks of the *colonia*—*Coln-brooke*, the *Colne*, &c.

The forms *-chester*, *-cester*, *kester-*, and *-caster*, as in *Dorchester*, *Ciren-cester*, *Kester-ton*, and *An-caster* = the Latin *castra*

The several places named *Wath*, are (*perhaps*) the Latin *vadum* of this period

The several places beginning with *Pon*—e g. *Pon-ton*, are (*perhaps*) the Latin *pons* of this period

The several *Creakes* and *Cricks* are (*perhaps*) the immediately Latin, but more remotely Greek, *κρῖάκη* = *church* If so, they belong to the period of the British Church

Crouch, as in *Crouch-end* = *crua*. It is doubtful, however, whether the name goes back to the time of the British Church, the only one which could give us the Latin of the first period

The *Walling street* is (*perhaps*) *Via Vitaliana*. At any rate, there is an inscription bearing the name of an engineer named *Vitalius*

The numerous *Cold Harbours* are all said to be on Roman roads, and it has been surmised that the origin of the first word may be the Latin *calidus* = *warm*

Street, whether as *Strat-ford*, as *Stret-ton*, or simply as *Street* (as in *Chester-le-Street*), is the Latin *strata* Wherever it occurs it is, at least, *prima facie* evidence of a Roman road; and may be used as an instrument of criticism, the ascertaining their lines.

Wall is (*probably*) *vallum* At any rate, the Picts of Beda's time spoke of the *Peann Fuhel* as *Caput Valli* = *the Head of the Wall*

Whether the list is to be increased or diminished, one fact is clear. viz that the Latin of the Roman, Keltic, or first period, consists, chiefly, of geographical terms. In other words, it contains *proper*, rather than *common*, names.

CHAPTER XIX.

HISTORICAL ELEMENTS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.—THE LATIN OF THE SECOND, OR ANGLE, PERIOD.

§ 366. THE Latin of the Anglo-Saxon, was that of the ecclesiastic, rather than the classical period. Many of the words belonging to it were barbarous. Books, too, being rare, the lessons were given by word of mouth. The extent to which the language thus taught was cultivated is uncertain. The following is a well-known extract from King Alfred's Preface to his Translation of Gregory's *Pastorale*—

"So clean was it lost amongst the men of England, that there were very few on this" (the south) "side of the Humber who could understand then service in English" (*i e* know what the Latin meant), "or translate an epistle from the Latin into the English. And I ween that, beyond the Humber, there were not many. So few were they, that I cannot think of any to the south of Thames, when I began to reign. Thank God that now we have a few teachers."

It seems from the word *lost* (*oðfeallen*) that there had been more Latin in the days before Alfred than there was under him; and when we consider that the eighth century was the era of Beda this seems probable.

§ 367. The following words are referrible to this period, *i e* they were introduced between A.D. 600 and the battle of Hasting. They relate, chiefly, to ecclesiastical matters. The names of plants (chiefly medicinal, or believed to be so) are also numerous.

<i>Anglo-Saxon</i>	<i>English</i>	<i>Latin</i>
<i>Mynster</i>	minster	monasterium
<i>Tempel</i>	temple	templum
<i>Chor</i>	choir	choirus
<i>Cyrc</i>	church	<i>kyriakon</i>
<i>Portic</i>	porch	porticus
<i>Cluster</i>	cloister	claustrum
<i>Munc</i>	monk	monachus
<i>Biscep</i>	bishop	episcopus
<i>Archbiscep</i>	archbishop	archiepiscopus
<i>Diacon</i>	deacon	diaconus
<i>Nunne</i>	nun	nonna
<i>Sanct</i>	saint	sanctus
<i>Profost</i>	provost	præpositus
<i>Preost</i>	priest	presbyter
<i>Messe</i>	mass	missa
<i>Sacerd</i>	—	sacerdos

<i>Anglo-Saxon</i>	<i>English</i>	<i>Latin</i>
<i>Albe</i>	aube	alba
<i>Pall</i>	pall	pallium
<i>Calice</i>	chalice	calix
<i>Candel</i>	candle	candela
<i>Psalter</i>	psalter	psalterium
<i>Pistel</i>	epistle	epistola
<i>Prædicator</i>	preach	prædicare
<i>Prophan</i>	prove	probae
<i>Tunic</i>	tunic	tunica
<i>Serin</i>	—	serinum
<i>Cæsere (Emperor)</i>	—	Cæsar
<i>Lilie</i>	lily	lilium
<i>Rose</i>	rose	rosa
<i>Fynel</i>	fennel	fœniculum
<i>Nepete</i>	—	nepeta
<i>Lufuste</i>	lovage	ligusticum
<i>Feverfew</i>	feverfew	felnifuga
<i>Rute</i>	rue	ruta
<i>Mint</i>	mint	mentha.
<i>Radue</i>	radish	radix
<i>Nape</i>	navew (<i>turnip</i>)	napus
<i>Senep</i>	—	sinapi
<i>Cheifille</i>	cheivill	cerisfolium
<i>Peterschive</i>	paisley-pier	petroselinum
<i>Perwince</i>	perwinckle	vinca
<i>Pione</i>	peony	pæonia
<i>Lactuce</i>	lettuce	lactuca
<i>Fic-beam</i>	fig-tree	figus
<i>Maydala-treow</i>	almond-tree	amygdalum
<i>Pin-treow</i>	pine-tree	pinus
<i>Cedar-beam</i>	cedar-beam	cedrus
<i>Hyssop</i>	hyssop	hyssopus
<i>Balsam</i>	balsam	balsamum
<i>Chamædis</i>	germander	chamædis
<i>Fille</i>	—	scirpulum
<i>Salvye</i>	sage	salvia
<i>Ancher</i>	anchoi	anchora
<i>Must</i>	—	mustum
<i>Pumeston</i>	pumice-stone	pumex
<i>Arce</i>	bow	arcus

The following are a few, out of many, words which, though now of Latin, were, originally, of Anglo-Saxon, origin :—

Creation	<i>Frumsceaft</i>
Earth	<i>Middangeard</i>
Providence	<i>Foresceona</i>
Creation	<i>Scyppena</i>
Evangel	<i>Gospel</i>
Ocean	<i>Garsee</i>

Paradise	<i>Neorana-wang</i>
Disciple	<i>Leonung-cuht</i>
Baptism	<i>Dippung</i>
Astiology	<i>Tuicheaeftey</i>
Scribe	<i>Witer</i>
Pharisee	<i>Bocer</i>
Prophet	<i>Witegu</i>
Baptist	<i>Fulhühter</i>
Devil	<i>Seeocca</i>

This last is the slang, vulgar, or provincial word *shah*

CHAPTER XX

HISTORICAL ELEMENTS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE —THE NORSE, OR SCANDINAVIAN, ELEMENT.

§ 368. RESPECTING the Danish elements in the English there are several extreme *statements* afloat. Whether the *opinions*, when analyzed, exactly bear them out, is another question. There is a statement that the pure Anglo-Saxon language was not influenced by them at all; and this, if it mean the West-Saxon, is true. There is also the statement, that no traces of Danish are to be found in our manuscripts which, if it mean that there was nothing more than a Danish word here and there, is also true. There is also a statement, that there is no trace of Danish to be found in our dialects, which is exceptionable. There *are* Danish words in our dialects. There *are* Danish words in such manuscripts as belong to the Danish parts of England; but in these manuscripts there are no traces of any Danish orthography, nor in the dialects are there any Danish inflections; marked in their character as those inflections are. The Danish words themselves, even when the utmost latitude is allowed, are not numerous; or they are only numerous in the eyes of those who would say that the Arabic words in English form a notable and constituent part of our language. The evidence, however, of their being Danish at all is unsatisfactory. It is an easy matter to find an English word in a Danish dictionary. It is not very difficult to prove its absence in an Anglo-Saxon one. To show that it is not Frisian or Old Saxon is not so easy. To show that it is absent in the provincial dialects of Holstein, Hanover, and Westphalia, is difficult. Yet until all this be done the Norse must not be resorted to. Laying aside then the Lowland Scotch, in which

the Norse element is undoubted; laying aside the provincial dialects of England, in which Norse words are to be found; laying aside the early compositions, which are more or less provincial, we come to the question—What is the amount of the Danish words in the *present English as written and spoken*? It is small and it must be admitted that it is smaller than the current views respecting the Danish invasions, and the general analogies of history, at the first view induce us to expect. But analogy or presumption is one thing, numerical results another. What is the amount of Danish words in the present English? A list of Mr. Coleridge's, than whom no one has given a longer one, includes all the three classes alluded to,—the provincialisms, the words found in compositions belonging to the Danish districts (in reality a division of the former group), and the integral portions of the current English. The latter come under the conditions of being found in the Norse and not being found in the Anglo-Saxon dictionaries. They also seem to be absent in the ordinary Frisian vocabularies. Out of this list, those portions of the current English which the present writer cannot at once pronounce to be other than Norse, are the following:—

<i>Bait</i>	<i>Dock</i>	<i>Fling</i>	<i>Slant</i>
<i>Bray</i>	<i>Doze</i>	<i>Gust</i>	<i>Sly</i>
<i>Bustle</i>	<i>Drub</i>	<i>Hank</i>	<i>Wall</i> (in wall-
<i>Chime</i>	<i>Duell</i>	<i>Ill</i>	<i>eyed</i>)
<i>Dash</i>	<i>Flumzy</i>	<i>Rap</i>	<i>Wham</i>

Each and all of these, however, he expects to find elsewhere as his knowledge increases.

CHAPTER XXI.

HISTORICAL ELEMENTS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE —ANGLO-NORMAN

§ 369 FOR practical purposes we may say that the French or Anglo-Norman element appeared in our language after the battle of Hastings, A.D. 1066

Previous, however, to that period we find notices of intercourse between England and France. Thus—

1 There was the residence in England of Louis Outremer

2 Ethelred II married Emma, daughter of Richard, Duke of Normandy, and the two children were sent to Normandy for education.

3 Edward the Confessor is particularly stated to have encouraged French manners and the French language in England.

4. Ingulphus of Croydon speaks of his own knowledge of French

5 Harold passed some time in Normandy

6. The French article *la*, in the term *la Drove*, occurs in a deed of A D 975.

§ 370 The chief Anglo-Norman elements of our language are the terms connected with the feudal system, the terms relating to war and chivalry, and a great portion of the law terms—*duke, count, baron, villain, service, chivalry, warrant, esquire, challenge, domain, &c.* See p 419.

§ 371 The proceedings in Town Clerks' offices were in French, as well as the proceedings in Parliament, and in the Courts of Justice.

In Grammar Schools, boys were made to construe their Latin into French

"Pueri in scholis, contra morem ceterarum nationum, et Normannorum aditum derelicto proprio vulgari, construere Gallice compelluntur. Item quod isti nobilium ab ipsis cancellorum crepundis ad Gallicum idioma informantur. Quibus propterea rudes homines assimilari volentes, ut per hoc spectabiliores videantur. Francigenam satagunt omni usu"—HIGDEN (Ed Gale, p 210)

§ 372. That the Anglo-Norman of England was, in the reign of Edward III, not exactly the French of Paris (and most probably not exactly the Franco-Norman of Normandy), we learn from the well-known quotation from Chaucer —

And Fienche she spake ful feteously,
After the scole of Statfoide at Bowe,
For Fienche of Parys was to her unknowe

Prologue to the Canterbury Tales

The well-known dialogue between Gurth and Wamba, in *Ivanhoe*, upon the words *beef, veal, mutton, and pork*, as contrasted with *ox, calf, sheep, and swine*, the former of which are Anglo-Norman, the latter English, tells us that, whilst the animal in its natural state bore the name given it by the conquered natives, the cooked viand took its name from the language of the conquerors.

§ 373. What the present language of England would have been had the Norman Conquest never taken place, the analogy of Holland, Denmark, and of many other countries enables us

to guess. It would probably have been much as it is at present

§ 374. The rate at which the Anglo-Norman elements were introduced is doubtful. Layamon's long poem, *The Brut*, was supposed to be written between A.D. 1200 and A.D. 1225. The following are, according to Sir F. Madden, all the Anglo-Norman words that are to be found:—

<i>Modern</i>	<i>Layamon</i>	<i>Modern</i>	<i>Layamon</i>
Admiral	admirail	Country	contie
Abbey	abbey	Cry	cu
Astronomy	astonomie	Delay	delaie
Annoyed	anued	Failed	faide
Attire	atyie	Fool	fol
Baron	barun	Folly	folc
Crown	corune	False	falsie
Changed	changede	Gule	gile
Chapel	chapel	Grace	grace
Counsel	conseil	Giant	granti
Guise	guyse	Power	powere
Honour	honur	Procession	processioun
Hostage	hostage	Peace	pais
Latimer	latimer	Park	parc
Machin	machines	Prison	prisune
Manne	manere	Route	route
Male	male	Service	sarevi
Mountain	moutaine	Treasure	tresur

In a short poem on the Battle of Lewes, written about A.D. 1264, occur—

tichard	castle	mangonel
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In Minot, a North-country contemporary of Chaucer's, the following .—

succorn	chance	kayse
care	false	peer
poop	cariff	prelate
price	cuse	honor
loft	treason	proffer
save	name	com-plain
maintain	comfort	leal
gay	plain	journey
enemy	mile	baron
maugie	quile = small	counsel
crown	penal = pennon	commandment
dance	grant	galley
advance	defend	calhot

number
assemble
mastery
ordain
mercy
jape
grape
pall
mischance
noble
flowerdeuce
battle
purvey
delay
ascry
pavillon
abate
trump
arblast
coward

burgess
blame
sergeant
sant
torch
olive
custom
aims
assail
scarlet
anchor
merchant
reason
duke
romance
clerk
reach
matter
noble
proper

prest
felony
cattle
friar
gentle
uncourteous
armour
affiance
palace
purpose
cardinal
place
distance
lance
flower
covetise
dine
tabour

In Wycliffe, who is generally looked upon as a writer of the vernacular English, the first four letters only in the index to his works give the following long list of Anglo-Norman, or Latin, words.

abash
abece
habitable
habit
inhabit
enhance
praise
abridge
abuse
accept
acolyte
accord
quench
encrease
author
cumber
adune
affix
arblast
disturb
alley
alien
almery
feeble

amend
amice
admonish
anguish
annoy
anoint
impar
appeal
apert
apply
apparel
array
arbiter
reason
assay
escape
assail
spy
assail
associate
astonish
attire
austere
attentive

all
ancestry
adventure
avarice
avise
avoid
advocate
advowty, &c.
avow
base
baptism
barbarous
barber
barrier
barren
basnet
bat
benefit
beneson
bernacl
bezant
blaspheme
botch
butcher

buffett	compere	daunt
brothel	compunct	daub
button	conceive	debonair
broach	conject	debris
embroidery	conjure	disdain
bugeon	consistory	fail
ambush	conspiracy	diffame
caruff	constrain	default
chameleon	consuetude	defend
character	consume	deform
cannon	contrary	defy
caution	conventicle	damny
cauldion	convert	delicate
censer	convict	delight
incense	coast	depart
ceremony	cost	deposit
certain	copious	deprave
car	currier	depute
chair	comage	describe
chariot	correction	desert
charnoteel	corpse	deserve
challenge	cuntam	desue
charge	corrupt	desperate
chalice	cousin	despite
chafter	couch	destroy
chasten	covetous	devour
chamber	convenable	dialectus
chandler	kerchief	diffame
change	cover	defer
chance	coverlid	define
cheer	comfort	indignation
chieftain	couple	diligent
chivalry	crest	dye
chorus	cross	diminish
cinnabar	cruet	deceive
encumbrance	cubicular	disciple
clarify	cruet	discharge
clarion	cubit	discomfort
cockatrice	cucumber	disease
coffer	cushion	dishonour
coffin	couple	dispend
coif	conduct	dispense
collation	care	dispute
collect	curious	dispoil
command	counteous	dissemble
covenant	custom	distain
commune	dame	disturb
common, &c	damsel	ditty
compacient	dam	indite
comparison	damn	diversity
compass	dance	divine

double
doubtdress
diomedayduke
duchy

From the *Northumbrian Psalter*, a composition even more English than Wychffe.

prince
heritage
fantom
face
crown
hon
tun
open
beast
quiver
save
oil
angel
mercy
psalm

cedar
unicorn
peace
poverty
cay
mule
power
command
relic
poor
ivory
timpan
solemnity
mass-day=holiday
diagon

castle
vine-yard
mulberry
sawty
turtle
porch
asp
basilisk
hymn
pelican
prophet
vine
figtree
synagogue
offer

From Chaucer's *Testament of Love*

deliciousness
just
rhyme
quint
sentence
colour
spirit
acquaintance
piece
plant
boisterous
pant
portraiture
occupation
commend
reverence
sovereign
delight
endite
certes
poesey
matter
phantasy
jay
chatter
pry
strange

property
science
faculty
dame
travail
excite
necessary
perpetual
mirror
vices
virtues
conceive
eschew
peril
necessaries
adventures
persons
desire
preacher
reasonable
perfection
unreasonable
comparisond
final
deceivable
changeable
creator

principly
consideration
purity
contemplation
delight
natural
study
noble
precious
memory
joy
richess
vain
glory
emperor
prince
perpetuel
memory
peace
contrary
press
passion
disease
testament
love
sphere
noble

master	plenty	doctram
glacious	curry	pale
plowess	comment	increase
victory	reason	portion
conquer	wallett	servant
jupe	almora	commend
pieces	remasle	passing
cause	trencher	pilgrim
gather	relief	boisterous

It is almost unnecessary to state that these lists are mere fragmentary contributions to the history of the important element under notice

CHAPTER XXII

HISTORICAL ELEMENTS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.—LATIN OF THE THIRD PERIOD

§ 375. THE Latin of the Third Period means the Latin which was introduced between the battle of Hastings and the revival of literature. It chiefly originated in the cloister, in the universities, and, to a certain extent, in the courts of law.

I have not investigated it, nor is it easy to investigate. To find certain words of Latin origin in the writers between the reigns of William the Conqueror and Henry VIII is easy; but it is not so easy to be sure that they did not come through the Anglo-Norman, and still less is it easy to be sure that they were not introduced before the Conquest: in other words, that they are not specimens of the Latin of the *Second* Period.

The real reason, however, why little is said about them, lies in the fact of the present writer having but little to say.

CHAPTER XXIII

HISTORICAL ELEMENTS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE —LATIN OF THE FOURTH PERIOD —GREEK

§ 376. THIS means the Latin which has been introduced between the revival of literature and the present time. It has originated in the writings of learned men in general, and often

exhibits the phenomenon of imperfect incorporation ; *i. e.* it supplies us with words which are only partially English.

Imperfect incorporation—

1. Has a direct ratio to the date of introduction, *i. e.* the more recent the word the more likely it is to retain its original inflection.

2. It has a relation to the number of meanings belonging to the words thus, when a single word has two meanings, the original inflection expresses one, the English inflection another—*genius, genii (spirits), geniuses (men of genius).*

3 It occurs with substantives only, and that only in the expression of number. Thus, although the plurals of substantives like *axis* and *genius* are Latin, the possessive cases are English. So also are the degrees of comparison for adjectives, and the tenses, &c., for verbs.

§ 377. The chief *Latin* substantives introduced during the latter part of the fourth period, and preserving the *Latin* plural forms are—

(1.)

Words wherein the Latin plural is the same as the Latin singular.

<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>	<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
Apparatus	apparatus	Congeries	congeries
Hiatus	hiatus	Series	series
Impetus	impetus	Species	species
Caues	caues	Superficies	superficies

(2.)

Words wherein the Latin plural is formed from the Latin singular by changing the last syllable.

(a) — Where the singular termination *-a* is changed in the plural into *-æ* —

<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur</i>
Formula	formulae	Larva	larvæ
Lamina	laminæ	Nebula	nebulæ

(b) — Where the singular termination *-us* is changed in the plural into *-i* —

<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>	<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>
Calculus	calculi	Polypus	polypi
Colossus	colossi	Radius	radii
Convolvulus	convolvuli	Ranunculus	ranunculi
Focus	foci	Sarcophagus	sarcophagi
Genus	genera	Scorpius	scorpi
Magus	magi	Stimulus	stimuli
Esophagus	esophagi	Tumulus	tumuli

(c)—Where the singular termination *-um* is changed in the plural into *-a*.—

<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>
Arcanum	arcana	Mausoleum	mausolea
Collyrium	collyria	Medium	media
Datum	data	Memo ^o andum	memoranda
Desideratum	desiderata	Menstruum	menstrua
Effluvium	effluvia	Momentum	momenta
Emporium	emporia	Premium	premia
Encomium	encomia	Scholum	scholia
Erratum	errata	Spectrum	spectra
Gymnasium	gymnasia	Speculum	specula
Lxivium	lxivia	Stratum	strata
Lustrum	lustria	Succedaneum	succedanea

(d)—Where the singular termination *-is* is changed in the plural into *-es*.—

<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>	<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>
Amanuensis	amanuenses	Ellipsis	ellipses
Analysis	analyses	Emphasis	emphases
Antithesis	antitheses	Hypothesis	hypotheses
Axis	axes	Oasis	oases
Basis	bases	Parenthesis	parentheses
Crisis	crises	Synthesis	syntheses
Diaeresis	diæreses	Thesis	theses

(3.)

Words wherein the plural is formed by inserting *-e* between the last two *sounds* of the singular, so that the former number always contains a syllable more than the latter :—

<i>Sing.</i>			<i>Plur</i>
Apex	<i>sounded</i>	apex-s	apices
Appendix	—	appendic-s	appendices
Calyx	—	calic-s	calyces
Cicatix	—	cicatric-s	cicatrices
Helix	—	helic-s	helices
Index	—	indec-s	indices
Radix	—	radic-s	radices
Vertex	—	vertec-s	vertices
Vortex	—	vortec-s	vortices.

In all these words the *c* of the singular number is sounded as *k*, of the plural as *s*

§ 378. The chief *Greek* substantives lately introduced, and preserving the *Greek* plural forms, are—

(1.)

Words where the singular termination *-on* is changed in the plural into *-a* :—

<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plu</i>	<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plu</i>
Aphelion	apheha	Critenon	critenu
Perihelion	perihela	Ephemerion	ephemeru
Automaton	automatu	Phænomenon	phænomenu

(2.)

Words where the plural is formed from the root by adding either *-es* or *-a*, but where the singular rejects the last letter of the root.

<i>Plurals in -es</i>		
<i>Original root</i>	<i>Plu</i>	<i>Sing</i>
Apsid-	apsides	apsis
Cantharid-	cantharides	cantharis
Chrysalid-	chrysalides	chrysalis
Ephemerid-	ephemerides	ephemeris
Tripod-	tripodes	tripos
<i>Plurals in -a</i>		
<i>Original root</i>	<i>Plu</i>	<i>Sing</i>
Dogmat-	dogmata	dogma
Lemmat-	lemmata	lemma
Miasmat-	miasmata	miasma

CHAPTER XXIV

HISTORICAL ELEMENTS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.—

MISCELLANEOUS

§ 379. OF miscellaneous elements we have two sorts; those that are incorporated in our language, and are currently understood (*e.g.* the Spanish word *sherry*, the Arabic word *alkali*, and the Persian word *turban*), and those that, even amongst the educated, are considered strangers. Of this latter kind (amongst many others) are the Oriental words *hummum*, *kaftan*, *gul*, &c.

Of the currently understood miscellaneous elements of the English language, the most important are from the French; some of which preserve the original plural forms, as *beau*, *beaux*, *bit-let-doux*.

Italian.—Some words of Italian origin do the same; as *vir-tuoso*, *virtuosi*.

Hebrew.—The two Hebrew words *cherub* and *seraph* do the

* This list is taken from Smart's valuable and logical English Grammar

same; the form *cherub-in*, and *seraph-in* being not only plurals, but Hebrew plurals.

Beyond the words derived from these languages none form their plural other than after the English method, *i. e.* in *-s*—as *waltzes*, from the German word *waltz*.

§ 380 The extent to which a language, like the English, which, at one and the same time, requires names for many objects, comes in contact with the tongues of half the world, and has a great power of incorporating foreign elements, derives fresh words from varied sources, may be seen from the following incomplete notice of the languages, which have, in different degrees, suppld it with new terms. These are chiefly taken from a paper of Mr. Craufund's on the subject.

Arabic—*Admiral*, *alchemist*, *alchemy*, *alcohol*, *alcove*, *allem-bic*, *algebra*, *alkali*, *assassin*, &c

Persian—*Turban*, *caravan*, *dervise*, &c

Turkish—*Coffee*, *bashaw*, *divan*, *scimitar*, *Janisary*, &c.

Indian—*Calico*, *chintz*, *cowhage* or *cowitch*, *cowrie*, *curry*, *luc*, *muslin*, *toddy*, &c

Chinese.—*Tea*, *bohea*, *congou*, *hyson*, *soy*, *nankin*, &c

Malay—*Bantam* (*fowl*), *gumlogé*, *rattan*, *sugo*, *shaddock*, &c

Polynesian—*Taboo*

Siberian—*Mammoth*, the bones of which are chiefly from the banks of the Lena. Originally Arabic—*i. e.* *Behemoth*.

North-American—*Squaw*, *wigwam*, *yemmican*.

Peruvian.—*Charqui* = *prepared meat*, whence *jerked beef*.

Caribbean.—*Hammock*.

§ 381. A distinction is now drawn between the *direct* and the *in-direct*, the latter leading to the *ultimate*, *origin* of words.

A word borrowed into the English from the French may have been borrowed into the French from the Latin, into the Latin from the Greek, into the Greek from the Persian, &c., and so on *ad infinitum*.

The ultimate known origin of many common words sometimes goes back to a great date, and points to extinct languages.

§ 382 Again, a word from a given language may be introduced by more lines than one; or it may be introduced twice over; once at an earlier, and again at a later period. In such a case its forms will, most probably, vary, and, what is more, its meaning as well. *Syrup*, *sherbet*, and *shrub* are all originally from the Arabic, *srb*, but introduced differently, viz. the first

through the Latin, the second through the Persian, and the third direct. *Minster*, introduced during the Anglo-Saxon, is contrasted with *monastery*, introduced during the Anglo-Norman period. By the proper application of these processes, we account for words so different in their present form, yet so identical in origin, as *priest* and *presbyter*, *episcopal* and *bishop*, &c.

§ 383. *Words of foreign, simulating a vernacular, origin.*—Let a word be introduced from a foreign language; let it have some resemblance in sound to a true native term; lastly, let the meanings of the two words be not absolutely incompatible. We may then have a word of foreign origin taking the appearance of an English one. Such, amongst others, are *beef-eater*, from *bœuffetier*; *sparrow-grass* = *asparagus*; *Shotover** = *Chateau-vert*; *Jerusalem*† = *Girasole*, *Spanish beefeater* = *spina bifida*: *periwig* = *peruke*; *runagate* = *renegade*; *lute-string* = *lustrino*;‡ *O yes* = *Oyez*; *ancient* = *ensign* §

Dog-cheap.—This has nothing to do with *dogs*. The first syllable is *god* = *good* transposed, and the second the *ch-p* in *chapman* (= *merchant*) *cheap*, and *Eastcheap*. In Sir J. Mandeville, we find *god-kepe* = *good bargain*.

Sky-larking—Nothing to do with larks of any sort; still less the particular species *alauda arvensis*. The word improperly spelt *l-a-r-k*, and banished to the slang regions of the English language, is simply *lác* = *game*, or *sport*; wherein the *a* is sounded as in *futher* (not as in *farther*). *Lek* = *game*, in the present Scandinavian languages

Zachary Macaulay = *Zumalacarregui*; *Billy Ruffian* = *Bellerophon*, *Sir Roger Dowlass* = *Surajah Dowlah*, although so limited to the common soldiers and sailors who first used them, as to be exploded vulgarisms rather than integral parts of the language, are examples of the same tendency towards the irregular accommodation of misunderstood foreign terms.

Birdbolt.—An incorrect name for the *gadus lota*, or *eel-pout*, and a transformation of *barbote*

Whistle-fish.—The same for *gadus mustela*, or *weazel-fish*.

Liquorice = *glycyrrhiza*.

A full and curious list of these words, by Mr Wedgwood, is to be found in the *Transactions of the Philological Society* for 1855; which gives, as additions to the preceding—

* As in *Shotover* Hill, near Oxford

‡ A sort of silk.

† As in *Jerusalem artichoke*

§ *Ancient Cusset*—*Othello*.

<i>Belfry</i>	<i>beffroi, French</i>
<i>Buckwall</i> (in tennis)	<i>bucolet, French</i>
<i>Baggage</i> (worthless woman)	<i>bagasse, French</i>
<i>Crawfish</i>	<i>écrevisse, French</i>
<i>Country-dance</i>	<i>contredanse, French</i>
<i>Causeway</i>	<i>chaussée, French</i>
<i>Charterhouse</i>	<i>chartreuse, French</i>
<i>Cortal-are</i>	<i>cortelazo, Italian</i>
<i>Dormouse</i>	<i>dormeuse, French</i>
<i>Doublet</i>	<i>guibetta, Italian</i>
<i>Gillyflower</i>	<i>guisflée, French</i>
<i>Gracechurch Street</i>	<i>Gracious street</i>
<i>Gum Benjamin</i>	<i>benzoin</i>
<i>Gum Dragon</i>	<i>tragacanth, Greek</i>
<i>Humble-bee</i>	<i>bombilus, Latin</i>
<i>Lanyard</i>	<i>lamere, French</i>
<i>Minature</i>	<i>miniatura, & Latin</i>
<i>Nancy Cousins Bay</i>	<i>Anse des Cousins, French</i>
<i>Penthouse</i>	<i>appentier, French</i>
<i>St Ubes</i>	<i>Setubal, Portuguese</i>
<i>Tuberose</i>	<i>tuberose, French</i>
<i>Waistcoat</i>	<i>veste, French</i>

In order for a word to be thus disguised, it is not necessary that it should be foreign to the German class of languages, or even to the English division. Thus — *Bridgewater* = *Burgh* *Walter*, *breech* = *flog* = *britschen* or *pritschen* German, and has nothing to do with *breeches*; *court-cards* = *coat-cards*; *decoy* = *duck* + *cooy* (the Dutch being *entekooi* = *duck cage*), and has nothing to do with *coy* = *allure*, *righteous* = *rightwise*; *shame-faced* = *shamfast*; *uproar* = *aufbruch* in German, from *ruhren* = *stir*, and has nothing to do with *roar* from the Latin *rugio*: *posture-maker* = *boetsenmaker*, Dutch, from *boetsen* = *possen* (German) = *tricks*. The old form of *livelihood* is *lifelode*; of *fieldfare*, *fealo-far*, where *fealow* = *tawny*, and has nothing to do with *fields*. *Gooseberry* = *kruisebeer* (Dutch), and has nothing to do with *geese*. The older and more correct name for *Poland* was *Polayn*; the German being *Pollen*. The origin of the word is *Polyane* = *plains*; the -*d* being entirely catachrestic. *Worm-wood* = *were-muth*; and has nothing to do with either worms or wood.

§ 384. Sometimes the transformation of the name has engendered a change in the object to which it applies, or, at least, has evolved new ideas in connection with it. How easy for a

* From *minium* = *vermillion*. Nothing to do with *minuo* = *diminish*

person who used the words *beef-eater*, *sparrow-grass*, or *Jerusalem artichoke*, to believe that the officers designated by the former either ate, or used to eat, more beef than other people; that the second word was the name for a *grass* or herb of which *sparrows* were fond, and that *Jerusalem artichokes* came from Palestine. To account for the name *Shotover Hill*, I have heard that Little John *shot* over it. Of *Leighton Buzzard* = *Leighton Beaudesert*, Mr. Wedgewood tells us that the eagle which serves as a lectern in the paish church is believed to be the buzzard that gave the name to the town. In these, and similar cases, the confusion, in order to set itself right, breeds a fiction.

Sometimes, when the form of a word in respect to its *sound* is not affected, a false spirit of accommodation introduces an un-etymological *spelling*; as *frontispiece* from *frontispecium*, *sovereign* from *souvrain*, *colleague* from *collega*, *lanthorn* (old orthography) from *lanterna*.

The value of forms like these consists in their showing that language is affected by false etymologies as well as by true ones.

CHAPTER XXV

HYBRIDISM, ETC.—INCOMPLETION OF THE RADICAL.

§ 335 IN *lambkin* and *lancet*, the final syllables (*-kin* and *-et*) have much the same power. They both express the idea of smallness or diminutiveness. These words are but two out of a multitude, the one (*lamb*) being of English, the other (*lance*) of Norman origin. The same is the case with the superadded syllables: *kin* being English, *-et* Norman. Now, to add an English termination to a Norman word, or *vice versâ*, is to corrupt the language; as may be seen by saying either *lance-kin*, or *lamb-et*. This leads to some observations respecting the Hybridism, a term derived from *hybrid-a* = *a mongrel*, a Latin word of Greek extraction.

The terminations *-ize* (as in *criticize*), *-ism* (as in *criticism*), *-ic* (as in *comic*)—these, amongst many others, are Greek. To add them to words not of Greek origin is to be guilty of hybridism. Hence, *witticism* is objectionable.

The terminations *-ble* (as in *penetrable*), *-bility* (as in *penetrability*), *-al* (as in *parental*),—these, amongst many others, are

Latin terminations. To add them to words not of Latin origin is to be guilty of hybridism.

Hybridism is the commonest fault that accompanies the introduction of new words, the hybrid additions to the English language being most numerous in works on science.

It must not, however, be concealed that several well-established words are hybrid; and that even in the writings of the classical Roman authors, there is hybridism between the Latin and the Greek.

Nevertheless, the strict etymological view of every word of foreign origin is, not that it is put together in England, but that it is brought whole from the language to which it is vernacular. Now, no derived word can be brought whole from a language, unless, in that language, all its parts exist. The word *penetrability* is not derived from the English word *penetrable*, by the addition of *-ty*. It is the Latin word *penetrabilitas* imported. Hence, *in derived words all the parts must belong to one and the same language*, or, changing the expression, *every derived word must have a possible form in the language from which it is taken*.

§ 386 A true word sometimes takes the appearance of a hybrid without really being so. The *-icle*, in *icicle*, is apparently the same as the *-icle* in *radicle*; and as *-ice* is German and *-icle* classical, hybridism is simulated. *Ice*, however, is not a derivative, but a compound, its parts being *is* and *gicel*, both English words.

'Be she constant, be she fickle,
Be she flame, or be she *ichlé*'—SIR C. SEDLEY

§ 387. *On incompleteness of the Radical*—Let there be in a given language a series of roots ending in *-t*, as *semat-*. Let a euphonic influence eject the *-t*, as often as the word occurs in the nominative case. Let the nominative case be considered to represent the root, or radical, of the word. Let a derivative word be formed accordingly, *i. e.* on the notion that the nominative form and the radical form coincide. Such a derivative will exhibit only a part of the root, in other words, the radical will be incomplete. Now, all this is what actually takes place in words like *hæmo-ptysis* (*spitting of blood*) *sema-phore* (*a sort of telegraph*). The Greek imparisyllabics eject a part of the root in the nominative case, the radical forms being *hæmat-* and *semat-*, not *hæm-* and *sem-*. Incompletion of the radical is

one of the commonest causes of words being coined faultily. It must not, however, be concealed, that even in the classical writers, we have, in words like *δύστομος* and a few others, examples of incompleteness of the radical

§ 388 The preceding chapters have paved the way for a distinction between the *historical* analysis of a language and the *logical* analysis of one. Let the present language of England (for the illustration's sake only) consist of 40,000 words. Of these, let 30,000 be Anglo-Saxon, 5000 Anglo-Norman, 100 Keltic, 10 Latin of the first, 20 Latin of the second, and 30 Latin of the third period, 50 Scandinavian, and the rest miscellaneous. In this case the language is considered according to the origin of the words that compose it, and the analysis is an *historical* analysis. But it is very evident that the English, or any other language, is capable of being contemplated in another view, and that the same number of words may be very differently classified. Instead of arranging them according to the languages whence they are derived, let them be disposed according to the meanings that they convey. Let it be said, for instance, that out of 40,000 words 10,000 are the names of natural objects, that 1000 denote abstract ideas, that 1000 relate to warfare, 1000 to church matters, 500 to points of chivalry, 1000 to agriculture, and so on throughout. In this case, the analysis is not historical but *logical*; the words being classed, not according to their *origin*, but according to their *meaning*.

CHAPTER XXVI.

ON THE RELATIONS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TO CERTAIN OTHER LANGUAGES AS THE MEMBERS OF A CLASS OF ORDINAL VALUE.

§ 389. ALL that has been written about the affinities of the English to the languages of Germany, Switzerland, Holland, and Scandinavia, are merely notices of the English language as the member of a *genus*. In writing this we use the languages of the naturalists; but, without committing ourselves to the doctrine that the phraseology of zoology and botany, on the one side, and ethnology, or philology, on the other, exactly coincide.

Genus, here, merely means a definite division of some larger group. This larger group we may call an *Order*.

Now the *order* to which the English language included in the *genus* named German, and the order to which the German, including the English, belongs, contains three other groups:—

1 The Sarmatian, falling into two divisions.

a. The Lithuanic, of which the Lett of Cúrland and Livonia, the Lithuanic proper of Lithuania, and the Old Prussian, now extinct, of the parts between the Vistula and the Niemen, are subdivisions, and

b The Slavonic, of which the Polish, the Bohemian, the Lusatian, the Slovak, the Servian and its congeners, the Russian and its congeners, and the Bulgarian, are subdivisions.

2. The Sanskrit; or, ancient language of India; and

3. The Latin and Greek, the two being dealt with as members of the same group.

That all these languages, with their immediate congeners, whether collateral or derivative, are members of the same order with the German, no one doubts. Whether the Sanskrit may not be merged into the Sarmatian is another question, whilst, in the mean time, many would separate the Lithuanic from the Sarmatian.

The main fact, however, is the affinity, and next to this its *ordinal* value.

§ 390. How a language belonging to one of these subordinate groups may agree with one belonging to another is seen in the following rough comparison between the English on the one side, and the Latin and Greek on the other:

1		
Words		
ENGLISH	LATIN	GREEK
<i>high-t</i>	luc-s (lux)	_____
<i>nigh-t</i>	noc-s (nox)	νύξ
<i>snow</i>	nie-s (nix)	νίφος
<i>horn</i>	corn-u	κέρας
<i>egg</i>	ov-um	ὠ-όν
<i>hide</i>	cut-is	_____
<i>day</i>	di-es	_____
<i>worm</i>	verm-is	_____
<i>fish</i>	pisc-is	_____

* The probable Latin root is *sniv-*, the *-o* being lost, and the *v* being the *v* of *niv-is*.

ENGLISH.	LATIN	GREEK.
<i>haulm</i>	calam-us	κάλαμι-ος
<i>folk</i>	vulp-us	_____
<i>eue</i>	ov-is	ζῆς
<i>cut</i>	cat-ul-us	_____
<i>u help</i>	vulp-es	_____
<i>hound</i>	can-is	κύων
<i>flea</i>	pulec-s (pulex)	_____
<i>hul</i>	hæd-us	_____
<i>one</i>	æs (æi-is)	_____
<i>father</i>	pater	πάτηρ
<i>mother</i>	mater	μήτηρ
<i>brother</i>	frater	_____
<i>head</i> *	caput	κεφαλή
<i>brow</i>	fi-ons	ὀφρύς
<i>eye</i> †	oc-ulus	_____
<i>ear</i>	aur-is	_____
<i>nose</i>	nas-us	_____
<i>lip</i>	lab-ium	_____
<i>mouth</i>	ment-um	_____
<i>tooth</i>	dens	_____
<i>tongue</i>	lingua (dīngua)	_____
<i>knee</i>	genu	γόνυ
<i>heel</i>	cal-x	_____
<i>red</i>	rut-ilus	ἐρυθ-ος
<i>yellow</i>	gily-us	_____
<i>cold</i>	gehid-us	_____
<i>full</i>	pl-enus	πλέ-ος
<i>long</i>	longus	_____
<i>short</i>	cuit-us	_____
<i>thin</i>	ten-us	_____
<i>goany</i>	juvenis	_____
<i>flow</i>	fluo	_____
<i>blow</i>	flo	_____
<i>drag</i>	trah-o	_____
<i>break</i>	frang-o (freg-i)	_____
<i>brook</i>	flu-or (fluc-tus)	_____
<i>beet</i>	fer-o	φέρ-ω
<i>eat</i>	ed-o	_____
<i>drive</i>	_____	θαρ-σέω
<i>will</i>	vol-o	βούλ-ομαι
<i>stand</i>	sto	ἵ-στημι
<i>write</i> *	vid-eo	εἶδ-ω
<i>a-m</i>	su-m	εἰ-μι
<i>b-e</i>	fu-i	φύ-ω

* In German *haup*t† In German *auge, Anglo-Saxon, *éage*.*‡ Meaning *know*, as in *I wist not*—*τίδ' ἔμελλεν τοῦ*

Inflections

The *-s* in the English genitive singular (*father's*) is the *-s* in *patr-is*, *lapid-is*, &c, which is the *-s* in *σώματ-ος*, *τίταν-ος*, &c

2 The *-s* in the English nominative plural (*fathers*) is the *-s* in *lapid-es*, *τίτάν-ες*

3 The *-er* in the English Comparative degree (*wiser*) is probably, the *-er* in words like *in-f'er-us*, *sup-er-us*.

4 The *-st* in the English Superlative (*wis-est*) is the *-ιστ* in words like *οἰκτ-ιστ-ος*.

5 The *-m* in *for-m-er* is the *-m* in *pri-m-us*

6. The *-t* in *tha-t* and *wha-t* is the *-d* in *i-d*, and the *-τ* in *ἔ-τ-ι*.

7 The *-th* in words like *four-th*, *fi-f-th* is the *-t* in *quar-t-us*, and *quin-t-us*, *τέταρ-τος*, *πέμπ-τ-ος*

8 The *-m* in *a-m* is the *-m* in *sum*, and *εἰ-μ-ί*

9 The *-s* in *call-es-t* is the *-s* in *am-us*, and *τύπτ-εις* The *-t* is of a late origin It was unknown in the Moeso-Gothic, and in the Old Saxon, where the termination is simply *-s*.

10 The *-th* in *speake-th* is the *-t* in *am-at*.

11. The *-ing* in *speaking* is the *-nī* of the Latin Gerunds, *amu-nī-i*, *ama-nī-o*, *ama-nī-um* The older form of the English participle was *-nī* In Anglo-Saxon *lu-fi-and* was the participle. This termination has since been softened down into *-ing*

12 The first *d* in *dīd* is believed on good grounds to be as true a reduplication as the *τ* in *τέ-τυφα*, and the *m* in *mo-mordī*

13. The *-d* in the participle *moved* is probably the *-t* in *vocat-us*, and the *-θ* in *τυφ-θ-είς*

Now all this gives us the following fact, viz. that every one of the ordinary English inflections, as we find them in the ordinary grammars, are not only German, as they are shown to be in the body of the present work, but Latin and Greek as well

§ 391 To the order under notice many excellent authorities (indeed, the great majority of them) add the Keltic. It is, however, the decided opinion of the present writer that this can only be done by raising the value of the class.

CHAPTER XXVII.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AS CONSIDERED IN RESPECT TO THE
STAGE OF ITS DEVELOPMENT.

§ 392. In the comparisons between the English and Anglo-Saxon it is stated that in many cases, where the speakers of the older language used inflections, the speakers of the newer language use prepositions and auxiliary verbs. If the present work were one on comparative philology, it would have been added that inflections arose out of separate words incorporated with the main one. This gives three stages; the English being in the third.

Of the languages in the third stage the English is what we call a *forward*, or *advanced*, one. Without going further into details, I will give, as an instance of the extent to which combinations originally concrete have become abstract, the words *I have been*. Where is the idea of possession here? Where the concrete import of *have*? If *I have been* mean anything, it means *I possess myself as a thing which has had a being*. Yet, it scarcely means this. *I have written a letter*, however, really meant, *I possess a letter as a thing written*.

The full details of this may be found in the Syntax. All that need now be said is, that the concrete meaning of even the expression last quoted has gone, whilst in the one first quoted it is scarcely conceivable. In this we have a measure of the extent to which our language has advanced in the way of, what we may call, abstraction. The French is, there or thereabouts, in the same stage. The French say, *j'ai été*; the Italians, however, say *sono stato*, and the Germans *bin gewesen*, both = *am been*.

§ 393. The *present* tendencies of the English may be determined by observation, and as most of them will be noticed in the Etymological part of this volume, the few here indicated must be looked upon as illustrations only.

1. The distinction between the Subjunctive and Indicative Mood is likely to pass away. We verify this by the very general tendency to say *if it is*, and *if he speaks*, for *if it be*, and *if he speak*.

2. The distinction (as far as it goes) between the Participle Passive and the Past Tense is likely to pass away. We verify

this by the tendency to say *it is broke*, and *he is smote*, for *it is broken*, and *he is smitten*.

3 Of the double forms, *sung* and *sang*, *drank* and *drunk*, &c., one only will be the permanent.

As stated above, these tendencies are a few out of a number, and have been adduced in order to indicate the subject rather than to exhaust it.

PART III.

PHONESIS.

CHAPTER I

ELEMENTARY SOUNDS OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.—LETTERS.—
ALPHABET.—PECULIARITIES OF THE ENGLISH SOUND-SYSTEM.

§ 394. THE elementary sounds of the English language are forty; of these, thirty-four are simple and six compound.

SIMPLE		
Vowels (12)	1	The sound of the letter <i>a</i> in <i>father</i>
	2	<i>a</i> in <i>gate</i>
	3	<i>a</i> in <i>fat</i>
	4	<i>e</i> in <i>bed</i>
	5	letters <i>ee</i> in <i>feet</i>
	6	letter <i>i</i> in <i>tin</i>
	7	letters <i>oo</i> in <i>cool</i>
	8	letter <i>u</i> in <i>full</i>
	9	letters <i>aw</i> in <i>bawl</i>
	10	letter <i>o</i> in <i>note</i>
Semi-Vowels (2)	11	<i>o</i> in <i>not</i>
	12.	<i>u</i> in <i>but</i>
	13	<i>w</i> in <i>well</i> .
Mutes (14)	14	The sound of the letter <i>y</i> in <i>yet</i>
	15	<i>p</i> in <i>pen</i> .
	16	<i>b</i> in <i>bane</i>
	17	<i>f</i> in <i>fine</i>
	18	<i>v</i> in <i>vain</i>
	19	<i>t</i> in <i>tin</i> .
	20	<i>d</i> in <i>din</i>
	21.	letters <i>th</i> in <i>thin</i>
	22.	<i>th</i> in <i>thine</i>
	23	letter <i>h</i> in <i>hill</i>
	24	<i>g</i> in <i>gun</i>
	25	<i>s</i> in <i>scul</i>

	26	letter <i>z</i> in <i>zeal</i>
	27	letters <i>sh</i> in <i>shine</i> .
	28	letter <i>z</i> in <i>a-zurc</i>
<i>Nasal</i> (1)	29	letters <i>ng</i> in <i>king</i>
<i>Breathing</i> (1)	30	letter <i>h</i> in <i>hot</i> .
<i>Liquids</i> (±)	31	l in <i>low</i> .
	32	m in <i>more</i>
	33	n in <i>no</i>
	34	r in <i>our</i>

COMPOUND

<i>Diphthongs</i> (±)	35	The sound of the letters <i>ou</i> in <i>house</i>
	36	eu in <i>new</i> .
	37	letter <i>i</i> in <i>pine</i>
	38	letters <i>oi</i> in <i>voice</i>
<i>Compound</i> }	39	ch in <i>chest</i> (or of <i>tsh</i>)
<i>Sibilants</i> } (2)	40	j in <i>jest</i> (or of <i>dzh</i>)

The English letters were originally reckoned at twenty-four, because, anciently, *i* and *j*, as well as *u* and *v*, were expressed by the same character.

§ 395. *Remarks on the English Phonesis and Spelling* —(1, 2, 3) The *a* in *father*, so common in French, Italian, Spanish, German, and most other languages, is comparatively rare in English—at least, as a *proper* power of *a*. Hence, the ordinary power of this letter, *i* e the sound of the *a* in *fate*, is an English peculiarity. In nine languages out of ten, its sound is that of the *a* in *father*. Neither is the true sound of the *a* in *fat* very common out of England. The ordinary continental vowel is that of the *a* in *father*, pronounced short—not the *a* in *fate* so pronounced

(4.) The sound which is to the *e* in *bed* as the *a* in *father* is to the *a* in *fat* and *fate*, and the *aw* in *barrel* to the *o* in *note* and *not*, is not found in English as a *proper* power of *e*. Like the *a* in *father*, however, it is found as an *improper* power of something else.

(5, 6.) The spelling here disguises the real affinities. The *ee* in *feet* is to the *i* in *tin*, as the *a* in *fat* is to the *a* in *fate*, and the *o* in *note* to the *o* in *not*.

Between the *ee* in *feet* and the *a* in *fate*, the Italian, and many other languages, have an intermediate sound—the *é fermé* of the French.

(7, 8) The real affinity is again disguised here—the *u* in *full* being to the *oo* in *cool* as the *i* in *tin* to the *ee* in *feet*

Between the *ee* in *feet* and the *oo* in *cool*, the Italian, and many other languages, have an intermediate sound

(9, 10, 11.) The spelling again disguises the affinity. the *aw* in *barwl* being to the *o* in *note* and *not*, as the *a* in *father* to the *a* in *fat* or *fate*

Between the *oo* in *cool* and the *o* in *note*, the Italian, and many other languages, have an intermediate sound.

(12) The *u* in *but* is somewhat rare beyond the pale of the English Language. It is commonest in the languages of India. It is a sound into which *certain short vowels, when unaccented, have a tendency to pass*

(13) The true *w*, with its proper semi-vowel sound, is far from common. Foreigners often sound it as *v*

(15, 16, 17, 18) The quaternion* here is complete—*p, b, f, v*

(19, 20, 21, 22) So it is here, though imperfectly expressed in spelling—*t, d, th, dh*) The last two are somewhat scarce sounds out of England.

(23, 24) The quaternion here is incomplete, the sounds which stand to *h* and *g* as *f* and *v* stand to *p* and *b* being wanting

(25, 26, 27, 28) Quaternion complete

(29) *Ng* This is the only true nasal we have. It is a *vowel* sounded through the nose.

(34) *R* at the *beginning* of a syllable is sounded over the whole area of the English Language, and that distinctly—*ran, right, &c.*

So it is when *medial*, or divided between two syllables, so as to be *initial* as well as final

At the *end*, however, of a syllable, this distinctness and universality of the sound of *r* is by no means the case.

There is a large percentage of educated speakers who make no difference between the sound of the *a* in *father*, and the *a* in *farther*, who, if you tell them to pronounce such a word as *cago* after the manner of a Frenchman or an Italian, will utter it just as they do their own English word *cargo*; or (rather) they pronounce their own English word *cargo* just as they would *cago* of French or Italian.

The rule then stands thus—that when a vowel is followed by *r*, the *r* is often dropped altogether, and the vowel made *open*

* The sounds of *b* and *v* are *sonant*, *i e* they are sounded at the full pitch of the voice. Those of *p* and *f* are *surd*, *i e* sounded with the voice in a whisper. *B* is the *lene* of *r*, and *f* the *lene* of *p*. This system gives a *quaternion*. When a language has four sounds in this relation, the quaternion is complete

In the same position, *i e.* before *r*, the sounds of the *i* in *fin*, the *u* in *but*, and *u* in *full*, all become that of the first *e* in *ferment*. Thus, Walker writes that "*fir*, a tree, is perfectly similar to the first syllable of *ferment*. *Sir* and *stir* are exactly pronounced as if written *sur* and *stur*."

At the present moment the word *near* ends in *r*—to the eye if not to the ear also. It is also an adjective in the positive degree. Originally, however, it was only the *comparative* which ended in *-r*; the positive being *neah* (i e. *nigh*). So that the *r* is one of two things—either non-existent in the spoken language, being a mere matter of spelling, or (if pronounced) non-radical

Sometimes this slurring of the *r* goes to a still greater length; and words wherein it is both final and initial at once, are pronounced as if it were non-existent. When a speaker pronounces *correct* as *caw-ect* he gives us an instance of this mispronunciation. Again—in *claret* the *e* is often elided, so that the word becomes *clart*. Carry (as many do) the change further still; sink the *r* and open the *a*, and you get *clabt*—the *a* as in *futher*, and the *r* nowhere

(35) The proper elements of the *ou* in *house* are not *o + u* but *a + w*. The German orthography gives this the nearest where *haus* = *house*.

(36) The proper elements of the *ew* in *new* are not *e + w* but *i + w*.

(37.) The proper elements of the *i* in *pine* are the *a* in *futher*, pronounced very short, + *y*.

(38) The proper form of expression for the *oi* in *voice* is not *o + i* but *o + y*.

(39, 40.) The two compound sibilants may serve as text to a comment on one of the most important of our unstable combinations.

§ 396 Wherever the sound of either *y* or *ee* is preceded by either *s* or *z*, by *h* or *g*, or by *t* or *d*, the combination is *unstable*, indeed, as a general rule, the sound of *ee*, when followed by a vowel and preceded by any consonant whatever (with the exception of *r*), has a tendency to change. The details of these changes claim attention.

With *r* (as has just been stated) the vowel undergoes no change at all; and words like *vitreous* are pronounced as trisyllables—*vit-re-ous*; since such a combination as *vitryous*

would be unpronounceable; but *million*, *pinion*, &c, become *millyon*, *pinyon*, &c

With *s* its effects are more remarkable. A combination which was originally *sia* becomes *sya*. The change, however, does not stop here. The sound of the combination *sy* almost always alters to that of *sh*, so that *sya* becomes *sha*; *syee*, *shee*; *syi*, *shy*; *syo*, *sho*; and *syu*, *shu*.

With *t*, preceding, the change goes further still. The vowel becomes a semi-vowel, so that *tia*, *tie*, *tio*, *tiru*, &c, become *tya*, *tye*, *tyo*, *tyu*, &c. Then the sound of the combination *ty*, becomes that of *tsh*. Hence *tya* becomes *tshu*, *tye*, *tshee*, *tya*, *tshi*; *tyo*, *tsho*; *tyu*, *tshu*.

This tendency of *i* to become *y* and of *y* to change the sound of certain consonants when they precede it, is the key to a series of apparent anomalies in the English spelling, and we may now see the principle in the pronunciation of certain words ending in *-ous*.

In words like *anxious*, the change was, first, from *an-si-ous* to *ang-syous*, and then from *ang-syous* to *ang-shous*.

In words like *precious*, the change was the same; since the *c* had the sound of *s*, and, consequently, was similarly affected—*pres-i-ous*, *pres-yous*, *pres-hous*

In words like *station* the same; since the sound of *t* was the sound of *s*, &c—*stas-i-on*, *sta-syon*, *sta-shon*.

In words like *righteous* we find the same; the series of changes being *right-e-ous*, *right-yous*, *right-shous*

Furthermore—the sound of the *ew* in *new* (or of the *ue* in *sue*) is connected with that of the unaccented *i*, since, by a series of changes, it often has the same effect upon a preceding consonant. It often becomes *yoo*; so that words like *new* and *sue* may be sounded as *nyoo*, and *syoo*. In this case the sound of *y* is developed, and this, when preceded by *s*, *z*, *t*, or *d*, has the same effects as a *y* produced by any other process, i. e. it changes them into *sh*, *zh*, *tsh*, and *dzh*. This explains why *sugar* is sounded *shugar*; *nature*, *nu-tsher*; *verdure*, *ver-dzhur*, &c.; the *u* having changed in sound, from *ew* to *yoo* (*natewr*, *na-tyoor*, *nu-tshoor*, *na-tsher*).

Such is a sketch of one of the processes by which the pronunciation of the English Language has changed, still changes, and will continue to change. When we hear of the *jew* (*dzhew*) instead of the *dew* falling, we may possibly hear a vulgar form

of utterance Nevertheless, it is a vulgarity which lies in the very innermost parts of the mechanism of our language—of our language and of innumerable others besides

§ 397. The chief points wherein the English sound-system differs from that of the more important modern languages, are worth noting, a knowledge of them being useful in the study of foreign tongues.

The scarcity of *proper* open sounds contrasts the vowel part of the English sound-system with that of the Italian, French, and other languages. It is well known how common the sounds of both the *a* in *father* and the *aw* in *bawl* are there. In the French the *e* final is mute; so that the extent to which the open sound of the *e* in *bed* is wanting in English is not very manifest in the study of that language Neither is it in Italian, where no words end in *-er*. In German, however, and the Norse tongues, it requires some attention to discern the difference of sound between a final *-e* (as in *meine*), and a final *-er* (as in *meiner*).

The absence of the *é* and *ô fermé* of the French and Italian, and other tongues, is another point to be remembered in the study of fresh languages. Thus the *o* in the Danish *Kone* runs great chance of being sounded by an Englishman as the *oo* in *cool*.

The *u* of the Germans (*y* Danish and *u* French) is a wholly new sound to the Englishman.

So is the *o* Danish and German, and the *eu* French.

As these two sounds are both absent in Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese, the vowel-system of these languages is *pro tanto* more English than the French and German, &c. On the other hand, the *u* in *but* gives foreigners trouble, being (as has been already stated) rare in the European tongues, though common in the Asiatic.

In the simplicity of its nasal system (*i. e.* the sounds like the *ng* in *king*) the English agrees with the German, and is specially contrasted with the French and Portuguese.

W is English rather than continental. The best way for foreigners to learn it is to place an *u-* (*oo* in *cool*) before some syllable beginning with a vowel, and pronounce it as quickly as possible; *e g.* on, *u-on* (*oo-on*); et, *u-et* (*oo-et*), &c. In this way the sound of *w* is soon obtained.

§ 398 The mute-system in English is one of the fullest in the world. Out of the four quaternions three are full and per-

fect; so that fourteen out of the sixteen mutes belong to our language. The two that are wanting, the so-called aspirates of *h* and *g*, are the scarcest. Next to these come *ð* and *þ*, which we have

But though full, the English mute-system is simple. Each sound has its normal and typical form, so that the *varieties* which go by the names of *guttural*, *cerebral*, &c., are wanting. Hence the *ch* German and many similar sounds are strange to us.

The nasal *ng* is never initial. We say *song*, but not *ngos*. This limitation of the nasal to the final parts of syllables is common. The Germans, Italians, &c., avoid an initial *ng* as much as does the Englishman. In the Keltic, however, it occurs, as it also does in many Asiatic languages

§ 399. Though the English sibilants are *compound*, they are never *complex*. Thus, we say *sha* or *sho*. We also say *tsha* or *tsho*. But we never combine the two; never use the complex sound *shtsha* or *shtsho*, never say *zhdzha* or *zhdzho*. Neither do the Italians, whose sibilant system is very like our own. The Slavonic population, on the other hand, *do*; and make no difficulty of such sounds as *shtshe*, or *shtshetsh*. This practice of using their compound sibilants in complex combinations, makes the Slavonic sound-system look much more unlike the English than it really is.

CHAPTER II.

ON ACCENT.

§ 400. WORDS accented on the last syllable—*Brigáde*, *pre-ténce*, *harpoón*, *reliéve*, *detér*, *assúme*, *besóught*, *beréft*, *befóre*, *abóad*, *abóle*, *abstrúse*, *intermíx*, *superádl*, *cavuliér*.

Words accented on the last syllable but one—*An'chor*, *ar'gue*, *hústen*, *fáther*, *fóxes*, *smíting*, *húsbánd*, *márket*, *vápour*, *báre-foot*, *archángel*, *bespátter*, *disáble*, *terrífic*.

Words accented on the last syllable but two—*Reg'ular*, *an'ti-dote*, *fortify*, *susceptible*, *incontrovertible*.

Words accented on the last syllable but three (rare)—*Ré-ceptacle*, *régulating*, *tálkativeness*, *ábsolutely*, *lúminary*, *inévi-table*, &c.

§ 401. In each part of the following sentences the same word occurs twice, but with a difference in the pronunciation. The first time that each word occurs, the accent is on the first syllable, the second time it occurs it is on the last. Furthermore, the word that is accented on the *first* syllable is a *noun*; the word that is accented on the *second* is a *verb*.

1 The *é*ports from London are very great, the *im*ports to London are very great also. 2 America *e*ports corn and *im*ports cloth.

1 Honey is an *é*xtract from flowers. 2 You cannot *e*xtráct honey from all flowers.

1 I have *f*réquent opportunities of visiting home. 2 I *f*requent the playground.

1 This is the *ó*bject. 2 I hope you do not not *ó*ject.

1 *P*érfumes are agreeable. 2 The flower *p*erfúmes the air, &c.

These accents may be called distinctive.

CHAPTER III.

ORTHÖEPEY.

§ 402 *Orthoepy and Orthography*—*Orthography* teaches us to represent the words of the spoken language by means of letters, *i. e.* by writing or printing. If we first pronounce a word (*e g man*, or *child*), then spell it and write it down, and, lastly, inquire whether the spelling be correct, we ask a question belonging to the province of *orthography*. But there are a vast number of words of which the pronunciation is doubtful, being sounded differently by different persons. For instance, the word *neither* is pronounced in three ways: *neither*, *nayther*, and *neether*. To ascertain the proper pronunciation of words is the province of *Orthoepy*. It teaches us to *speak* the words of our language accurately. If we first pronounce a word, and then ask whether we have pronounced it properly, we ask a question belonging to the province of *orthöepy*. *Orthoepy* deals with words as they are pronounced, or with language as it is sounded; *orthography* with words as they are spelt, or with language as it is written. The latter presupposes the former. *Orthography* is less essential to language than *orthoepy*, since all languages are spoken, whilst but a few languages are written. *Orthography* addresses itself to the eye,

orthoepy to the ear. Orthoepy deals with the articulate sounds that constitute syllables and words; orthography treats of the signs by which such articulate sounds are expressed in writing

§ 403. Of pronunciation there are two kinds, the conversational (or ordinary) and the rhetorical. In common conversation we pronounce the *i* in *wind*, like the *i* in *bit*; in rehearsing, or in declamation, however, we pronounce it like the *i* in *bite*, that is, we give it a diphthongal sound. In reading the Scriptures we say *blesséd*, in current speech we say *blest*. It is the same with many words occurring in poetry

§ 404. Errors in pronunciation are referrible to several heads. The man who pronounces the verb *to survey*, as if it was *súrvey* (that is, with the accent on the wrong syllable), errs in respect to the *accentuation* of the word. To say *orātor* instead of *orátor* is to err in respect to the *quantity* of the word. To pronounce the *a* in *father*, as it is pronounced in Yorkshire, or the *s* in *sound*, as it is pronounced in Devonshire (that is, as *z*), is to err in the matter of *articulation*, or the articulate sounds. To mispronounce a word because it is misspelt (to say, for instance, *chemist* for *chymist*, or *vice versá*, for I give no opinion as to the proper mode of spelling), is only indirectly an error of orthoepy. It is an error, not so much of orthoepy as of orthography. To give a wrong inflection to a word is not bad pronunciation, but bad grammar. For practical purposes, however, many words that are really points of grammar and of orthography may be dealt with as points of orthoepy

Errors in the way of articulation generally arise from a source different from those of accent and of quantity. Errors in accent and quantity are generally referrible to insufficient grammatical or etymological knowledge, whilst the errors of articulation betray a provincial dialect

§ 405. The *misdivision of syllables* has, in the English, and in other languages, given rise to a peculiar class of words. There have been those who have written a *nambussador* for an *ambassador*, misdividing the syllables, and misdistributing the sound of the letter *n*. The double form (*a* and *an*) of the English indefinite article, encourages this misdivision. Now, in certain words an error of this kind has had a permanent influence. The English word *nag* is, in Danish *og*; the *n*, in English, having originally belonged to the indefinite *an*, which preceded it. The words, instead of being divided thus, *an ag*, were divided thus *a nag*, and the fault became perpetuated

That the Danish is the true form we collect, firstly, from the ease with which the English form is accounted for, and, secondly, from the Old-Saxon form *ehu*, Latin *equus*. In *adder* we have the process reversed. The true form is *naddler*, Old English, *natter*, German. Here the *n* is taken from the substantive and added to the article. In *ncwt* and *eft* we have each form. The list of words of this sort can be increased.

§ 406. A person who says *sick* for *thick*, or *eleben* for *eleven*, does so, not because he knows no better, but because he cannot enounce the right sounds of *th* and *v*. He is incompetent to it. His error is not one of ignorance. It is an acoustic or a phonetic defect. Incompetent enunciation differs from—

§ 407 *Erroneous enunciation*, which is the error of a person who talks of *jocholate* instead of *chocolate*. It is not that he *cannot* pronounce rightly, but that he mistakes the nature of the sound required. Still more the person who calls a *hedge* an *edge*, and an *edge* a *helge*.

Incompetent enunciation and erroneous enunciation are, however, only the proximate and immediate causes of bad orthoepy. Amongst the remote causes are the following.

§ 408 *a. Undefined notions as to the language to which a word belongs.*—The flower called *anemone* is variously pronounced. Those who know Greek say *anemōne*, speaking as if the word was written *anemohny*. The mass say *anemōne*, speaking as if the word was written *anemmony*. Now, the doubt here is as to the language of the word. If it be Greek, it is *anemōne*. And if it be English, it is (on the score of analogy) as undoubtedly *anémmony*. The pronunciation of the word in point is determined when we have determined the language of it.

b. Mistakes as to fact, the language of a word being determined.—To know the word *anemōne* to be Greek, and to use it as a Greek word, but to call it *anemōny*, is not to be undecided as to a matter of language, but to be ignorant as to a matter of quantity.

c. Neglect of analogy.—Each and all the following words, *orator*, *theatre*, *senator*, &c., are, in the Latin language, from whence they are derived, accented on the second syllable; as *orátor*, *théâtre*, *senátor*. In English, on the contrary, they are accented on the first; as *órator*, *théâtre*, *sénator*. The same is the case with many other words similarly derived. They simi-

larly suffer a change of accent. So many words do this, that it is the rule in English for words to throw their accent from the second syllable (counting from the end of the word) to the third. It was on the strength of this rule,—in other words, on the analogies of *orator*, &c, that the English pronunciation of the Greek word *ἀνεμῶνη* was stated to be *anémmoné*. Now, to take a word derived from the Latin, and to look to its original quantity only, without consulting the analogies of other words similarly derived, is to be neglectful of the analogies of our own language, and only attentive to the quantities of a foreign one.

These, amongst others, the immediate causes of erroneous enunciation, have been adduced not for the sake of exhausting, but for the sake of illustrating the subject.

§ 409. In matters of orthoepy it is the usual custom to appeal to one of the following standards.

a. The authority of scholars—This is of value up to a certain point only. The fittest person for determining the classical pronunciation of a word like *anemone* is the classical scholar; but the mere classical scholar is far from being the fittest person to determine the analogies that such a word follows in English.

b. The usage of educated bodies, such as the bar, the pulpit, the senate, &c—These are recommended by two circumstances.

1. The chances are that each member of them is sufficiently a scholar in foreign tongues to determine the original pronunciation of derived words, and sufficiently a critic in his own language to be aware of the analogies that are in operation. 2. The quantity of imitators that, irrespective of the worth of his pronunciation, each individual can carry with him. On this latter ground the stage is a sort of standard.

c. The authority of societies constituted with the express purpose of taking cognizance of the language of the country.—These, although recognized in Italy and other parts of the Continent, have only been proposed in Great Britain. Their inefficacy arises from the inutility of attempting to fix that which, like language, is essentially fluctuating.

d. The authority of the written language.—The value of this may be collected from the chapter on orthography.

These, amongst others, the standards that have been appealed to, are adduced not for the sake of exhausting the subject, but to show the unsatisfactory nature of authority in matters of speech.

For a person, on a point of pronunciation, to trust to his

own judgment, he must be capable, with every word that he doubts about, of discussing three questions :—

a. The abstract or theoretical propriety of a certain pronunciation.—To determine this he must have a sufficient knowledge of foreign tongues and a sufficient knowledge of English analogies. He must also have some test by which he can determine to what language an equivocal word belongs. Of tests for this purpose, one, amongst others, is the following :—Let it be asked whether the word *lens* (in Optics) is English or Latin ; whether it is to be considered as a naturalized word or a strange one. The following fact will give an answer. There is of the word *lens* a plural number, and this plural number is the English form *lenses*, and not the Latin form *lentes*. The existence of an English inflection proves that the word to which it belongs is English, although its absence does not prove the contrary. That the word *anemone* is English (and consequently pronounced *anemōne*) we know from the plural form, which is not *anemonæ*, but *anemones*.

b The preference of one pronunciation over another on the score of utility.—The word *ascetic*, for certain orthographical reasons, notwithstanding its origin from the Greek word *askēō*, is called *asetic*. For similar reasons there is a tendency to call the word *sceptic*, *septic*. Theoretical propriety (and, be it observed, the analogy of *ascetic* has not been overlooked) is in favour of the word being sounded *skeptic*. The tendency of language, however, is the other way. Now, the tendency of language and the theoretical propriety being equal, there is an advantage (a point of utility) in saying *skeptic*, which turns the scale. By sounding the *k* we distinguish the word *skeptic* from *septic*. By this the language gains a point in perspicuity, so that we can talk of the *anti-skeptic* writings of Bishop Warburton and of the *anti-septic* properties of charcoal.

c. The tendencies of language—The combination *ew* is an Unstable Combination ; that is, it has a tendency to become *yoo*, and the *y* in *yoo* has a tendency to change a *d* preceding into *j* ; in other words, we see the reason why, by many persons, *dew* is pronounced *jew*.

It is generally an easier matter to say how a word will be sounded a hundred years hence, than to determine its present pronunciation. Theoretical propriety is in favour of *dew*, so also is the view in the way of utility. Notwithstanding this,

posterity will say *jew*, for the tendencies of language are paramount to all other influences.

§ 410. We may now judge of the relative value of the three lines of criticism exhibited above. Other things being equal, the language should have the advantage of the doubt, and the utility of a given pronunciation should prevail over its theoretical propriety. Where, however, the tendencies towards a given form are overwhelming, we can only choose whether, in doubtful words, we shall speak like our ancestors, or like our posterity.

CHAPTER IV

ORTHOGRAPHY.—ORTHOGRAPHICAL EXPEDIENTS.

§ 411. A FULL and perfect system of *orthography* consists in two things.—1 The possession of a sufficient and consistent alphabet. 2 The right application of such an alphabet.

The English Alphabet fails in each of these points, being (1) *Insufficient*, (2.) *Erroneous*; (3) *Redundant*, and (4) *Unsteady*.

Insufficiency—*a Vowels*—Notwithstanding the fact that the sounds of *a* in *father*, *fate*, and *fat*, and the *o* and the *aw*, in *note*, *not*, and *bawl* are modifications of *a* and *o* respectively, we have still six vowels specifically distinct, for which we have but five signs. The *u* in *duck*, specifically distinct from the *u* in *bull*, has no specifically distinct sign to represent it.

b. Consonants.—The *th* in *thin*, *th* in *thine*, *sh* in *shine*, the *z* in *azure*, the *ng* in *king*, require corresponding signs—single and simple—which they have not.

Inconsistency—The *f* in *fan*, and the *v* in *van*, sounds in a certain degree of relationship to *p* and *b*, are expressed by signs as unlike as *f* is unlike *p*, and as *v* is unlike *b*. The sound of the *th* in *thin*, the *th* in *thine*, the *sh* in *shine*, similarly related to *t*, *d*, and *s*, are expressed by signs as like *t*, *d*, and *s*, respectively, as *th* and *sh*.

The compound sibilant sound of *j* in *jest* is spelt with the single sign *j*, whilst the compound sibilant sound in *chest* is spelt with the combination *ch*.

Erroneousness.—The sound of the *ee* in *feet* is considered

the long (independent) sound of the *e* in *bed*, whereas it is the long (independent) sound of the *i* in *pit*

The *i* in *bite* is considered as the long (independent) sound of the *i* in *pit*; whereas it is a diphthongal sound.

The *u* in *duck* is looked upon as a modification of the *u* in *bull*; whereas it is a specifically distinct sound.

The *ou* in *house* and the *oi* in *oil* are looked upon as the compounds of *o* and *i* and of *o* and *u* respectively, whereas the latter element of them is not *i* and *u*, but *y* and *w*.

The *th* in *thin* and the *th* in *thine* are dealt with as one and the same sound; whereas they are sounds specifically distinct

The *ch* in *chest* is dealt with as a modification of *c* (either with the power of *k* or of *s*), whereas its elements are *t* and *sh*.

Redundancy.—As far as the representation of sounds is concerned the letter *c* is superfluous. In words like *citizen* it may be replaced by *s*; in words like *cat* by *k*. In *ch*, as in *chest*, it has no proper place. In *ch*, as in *mechanical*, it may be replaced by *k*

Q is superfluous, *cw* or *hw* being its equivalent.

X also is superfluous, *ks*, *gz*, or *z*, being equivalent to it.

The diphthongal forms *æ* and *œ*, as in *Aeneas* and *Croesus*, except in the way of etymology, are superfluous and redundant

Unsteadiness—Here we have (amongst many other examples), 1. The consonant *c* with the double power of *s* and *k*, 2. *g* with its sound in *gun*, and also with its sound in *gin*; 3. *x* with its sounds in *Alexander*, *apoplexy*, *Xenophon*.

In the foregoing examples a single sign has a double power, in the words *Philip* and *fillip*, &c. a single sound has a double sign.

The defects noticed in the preceding sections are *absolute* defects, and would exist, as they do at present, were there no language in the world except the English. This is not the case with those that are now about to be noticed; for them, indeed, the word *defect* is somewhat too strong a term. They may more properly be termed inconveniences

Compared with the languages of the rest of the world, the use of many letters in the English alphabet is *singular*. The letter *i* (when long or independent) is, with the exception of England, generally sounded as *ee*. With Englishmen it has a diphthongal power. The inconvenience of this is the necessity that it imposes upon us, in studying foreign languages, of un-

learning the sound which we give it in our own, and of learning the sound which it bears in the language studied. So it is (amongst many others) with the letter *j*. In English this has the sound of *dzh*, in French of *zh*, and in German of *y*. From singularity in the use of letters arises inconvenience in the study of foreign tongues.

In using *j* as *dzh* there is a second objection. It is not only inconvenient, but it is theoretically incorrect. The letter *j* was originally a modification of the vowel *i*. The Germans, who use it as the semi-vowel *y*, have perverted it from its original power less than the English have done, who sound it *dzh*.

§ 412. With these views we may appreciate, of the English alphabet and orthography—

1. *Its convenience or inconvenience in respect to learning foreign tongues.*—The sound given to the *a* in *fate* is singular. Other nations sound it as *a* in *father*.

The sound given to the *e*, long (or independent), is singular. Other nations sound it either as *a* in *fate*, or as *é* *fermé*.

The sound given to the *i* in *bite* is singular. Other nations sound it as *ee* in *feet*.

The sound given to the *oo* in *fool* is singular. Other nations sound it as the *o* in *note*, or as the *ó* in *chiviso*.

The sound given to the *u* in *duck* is singular. Other nations sound it as the *u* in *bull*.

The sound given to the *ou* in *house* is singular. Other nations, more correctly, represent it by *au* or *aw*.

The sound given to the *w* in *wet* is somewhat singular, but is also correct and convenient. With many nations it is not found at all, whilst with those where it occurs it has the sound (there or thereabouts) of *v*.

The sound given to *y* is somewhat singular. In Danish it has a vowel power. In German the semi-vowel sound is spelt with *j*.

The sound given to *z* is not the sound which it has in German and Italian; but its power in English is convenient and correct.

The sound given to *ch* in *chest* is singular. In other languages it has generally a guttural sound, in French that of *sh*. The English usage is more correct than the French, but less correct than the German.

The sound given to *j* (as said before) is singular

2 *The historical propriety of certain letters.*—The use of *i*

with a diphthongal power is not only singular and inconvenient, but also historically incorrect. The Greek *iota*, from whence it originates, has the sound of *i* and *ee*, as in *pit* and *feet*.

The *y*, sounded as in *yet*, is historically incorrect. It grew out of the Greek *υ*, a vowel, and no semi-vowel. The Danes still use it as such, that is, with the power of the German *u*.

The use of *j* for *dzh* is historically incorrect.

The use of *c* for *k* in words derived from the Greek, as *ascetic*, &c., is historically incorrect. In remodelling alphabets the question of historical propriety should be recognized. Other reasons for the use of a particular letter in a particular sense being equal, the historical propriety should decide the question. The above examples are illustrative, not exhaustive.

§ 413. *On certain conventional modes of spelling*—In the Greek language the sounds of *ο* in *not* and of *ο* in *note* (although allied) are expressed by the unlike signs or letters *ο* and *ω*, respectively. In most other languages the difference between the sounds is considered too slight to require for its expression signs so distinct and dissimilar. In some languages the difference is neglected altogether. In many, however, it is expressed, and that by some modification of the original letter.

Let the sign (˘) denote that the vowel over which it stands is long, or independent, whilst the sign (˙) indicates shortness, or dependence. In such a case, instead of writing *not* and *note*, like the Greeks, we may write *nōt* and *nōt*, the sign serving for a fresh letter. Herein the expression of the nature of the sound is natural, because the natural use of (˘) and (˙) is to express length and shortness, dependence or independence. Now, supposing the broad sound of *ο* to be already represented, it is very evident that, of the other two sounds of *ο*, the one must be long (independent), and the other short (dependent); and as it is only necessary to express one of these conditions, we may, if we choose, use the sign (˘) alone; its presence denoting length, and its absence shortness (independence or dependence).

As signs of this kind, one mark is as good as another; and instead of (˘) we may, if we choose, substitute such a mark as (') and (write *nōt* = *nōt* = *nōt* = *nōte*), provided only that the sign (') expresses no other condition or affection of a sound. This use of the mark ('), viz. as a sign that the vowel over which it is placed is long (independent), is common in many languages. But is this the use of (') natural? For a reason

that the reader has anticipated, it is not natural, but conventional. It is used elsewhere not as the sign of *quantity*, but as the sign of *accent*; consequently being placed over a letter, and being interpreted according to its natural meaning, it gives the idea, not that the syllable is long, but that it is emphatic or accented. Its use as a sign of quantity is an orthographical expedient, or a conventional mode of spelling.

§ 414 The English language abounds in orthographical expedients, the mode of expressing the quantity of the vowels being particularly numerous. To begin with these.—

The reduplication of a vowel where there is but one syllable (as in *feet*, *cool*), is an orthographic expedient. It merely means that the syllable is long (or independent).

The reduplication of a consonant after a vowel, as in *spotted*, *torrent*, is, in most cases, an orthographic expedient. It merely denotes that the preceding vowel is short (dependent).

The use of *th* with the power of the first consonantal sound in *thin* and *thine*, is an orthographic expedient. The combination must be dealt with as a single letter.

X, however, and *q*, are not orthographic expedients. They are orthographic compendiums.

The mischief of orthographic expedients is this.—When a sign, or letter, is used in a *conventional*, it precludes us from using it (at least without further explanation) in its *natural* sense. Thus the double *o* in *mood* constitutes but one syllable. If in a foreign language, we had, immediately succeeding each other, first the syllable *mo*, and next the syllable *od*, we should have to spell it *mo-od*, or *mood*, or *mo-ôl*, &c. Again, it is only by our knowledge of the language that the *th* in *nulhook*, is not pronounced like the *th* in *burthen*. In the languages of India the true sound of *t + h* is common. This, however, we cannot spell naturally; because the combination *th* conveys to us another notion. Hence arise such combinations as *thh*, or *t'*, &c, in writing Hindoo words.

A second mischief of orthographic conventionalities, is the wrong notions that they engender, the eye misleading the ear. That *th* is really *t + h*, no one would have believed had it not been for the spelling.

§ 415. One of our orthographic expedients, viz the reduplication of the consonant following, to express the shortness (dependence) of the preceding vowel, is as old as the classical languages: *τεριι*, *θάλασσα*. This has been already stated. In

respect, however, to its application in English, the following extract from the *Ormulum* written in the thirteenth century) is the fullest recognition of the practice that I have met with.

And whase wilenn shall þas boc,
 Effi oþer siþe writenn,
 Himm bidde icc þatt hett wite 11ht,
 Swa sun þiss boc himm tæcheþþ,
 All þwent utt aftar þatt itt iss
 Oppo þiss fiiste bisne,
 Wipp all swile 11me als her iss sett,
 Wipp also fele wordess
 And tatt he loke well þatt he
An boc stoff wite tuggess,
 Eggwhær þæt itt uppo þiss boc
 Iss writenn o þatt wise
 Loke he well þatt hett wite swa,
 For he ne magg noht ellæss,
 On Englissh writenn 11ht to word
 þatt wite he well to soþe

§ 416 Two important modes of spelling still stand over for notice

(1.) By adding a second vowel, and so giving the appearance of a diphthong (*reð*, *reād*), and (2) by adding at the end of the word the letter *e*, which, from the circumstance of its not being sounded, is called the *e* mute (*bāt*, *bāte*); we get, *for the present stage of the English language*, the same results that come from the reduplication of the vowel, as in *feet* and *cool*; *i. e.* we get a sign to the eye that the vowel is long or independent. Such, at least, is the general inference from these combinations. At the same time it is doubtful whether either of these is a true orthographic expedient; inasmuch as it is highly probable that they once represented (or approached the representation of) a real sound; *e g* the *e* called mute was once sounded

Again, the provincial pronunciation of such a word as *wheat* is *whēe-ūt* (there or thereabouts). This, which is provincial now, may easily be *archaic*, *i. e.* belong to the written language in an older stage. If so, the second vowel is no true orthographic expedient. Whatever it may be now, it originally expressed a real sound, a real sound which has changed and simplified itself during the interval

§ 417. Long as is the list of the different powers of the different letters of the English Language, the greater part of

^c Write one letter to ice.

them finds an explanation in one of the above-mentioned principles.

The etymological principle explains much ; for the English is a language which pre-eminently recognizes it ; and it is also a language which, from the complex character of its organization, has a large field for its application.

Change between the first use of a given mode of spelling and the present time explains much also ;

Orthographic expedients explain more ;

Fourthly, the juxta-position of incompatible sounds explains much. See remarks on *d* and *s*. in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V.

REMARKS ON SOME OF THE DETAILS OF THE ENGLISH ALPHABET AND ORTHOGRAPHY

§ 418. *B*.—The *b* in *debtor*, *subtle*, *doubt*, agrees with the *b* in *lumb*, *dumb*, *thumb*, *womb*, in being mute. It differs, however, in another respect. The words *debtor*, *subtle*, *doubt*, are of classical, the words *lumb*, *dumb*, &c. are of Angle origin. In *debtor*, &c. the *b* was undoubtedly at one time pronounced, since it belonged to a different syllable ; *debitor*, *subtilis*, *dubito*, being the original forms. I am far from being certain that, with the other words, *lumb*, &c., this was the case. With them the *b* belonged (if it belonged to the word at all) to the same syllable as the *m*. I think, however, that instead of this being the case, the *b*, in *speech*, never made a part of the word at all, that it belongs now, and that it always belonged, to the *written* language only ; and that it was inserted in the spelling upon what may be called the principle of imitation.

§ 419. *D*.—The reason for *d* being often sounded like *t*, is as follows :—

The words where it is so sounded are either the past tenses or the participles of verbs ; as *plucked*, *tossed*, *stepped*, &c.

Now the letter *e* in the second syllable of these words is not sounded ; whence the sounds of *k*, of *s*, and of *p*, come in immediate contact with the sound of the letter *d*.

But the sound of the letter *d* is flat, whilst those of *ks*, and *p* are sharp ; so that the combinations *kd*, *sd*, and *pd* are unpronounceable. Hence *d* is sounded as *t*

In the older stages of the English Language the vowel *e* (or

some other vowel equivalent to it,) was actually sounded, and in those times *cl* was sounded also.

Hence *cl* is retained in spelling, although its sound is the sound of *t*

§ 420. *K* (*O*).—1. Before *e*, *i* and *y*, the letter *c* is pronounced as *s*—*cetaceous*, *city*, *Cyprian*;

2 Before *a*, *o*, and *u*, it is sounded as *k*—*cat*, *cool*, *cut*;

3. Before a consonant it is so sounded—*craft*.

On the other hand—1. *K* rarely comes before *a*, *o*, *u*—

2. But it is used before *e*, *i*, or *y*; because in that position *c* would run the chance of being sounded as *s*

Hence at the end of words *k* is used in preference to *c*. We write *stick*, *lock*, rather than *stic*, *loc*, or *sticc*, *locc*.

And the reason is clear; the sound of *c* is *either* that of *k* or that of *s*.

Which of these sounds it shall represent is determined by what follows.

If followed by nothing, it has no fixed sound; but

At the end of words it *is* followed by nothing;

Whence it has, at the end of words, no fixed sound; and

Therefore being inconvenient, has to be replaced by *k*.

But, besides this, *k* is rarely doubled. We write *stick* rather than *stikk*. This is because it is never used except where *c* would be pronounced as *s*; that is, before a small vowel. If *kid* were spelt *cid*, it would run the chance of being pronounced *sicd*.

Now, the preference of *c* to *k* is another instance of the influence of the Latin language. The letter *k* was wanting in Latin; and as such was eschewed by languages whose orthography was influenced by the Latin.

Hence arose in the eyes of the etymologist the propriety of retaining, in all words derived from the Latin (*crown*, *concave*, *concupiscence*, &c.), the letter *c* to the exclusion of *k*. Besides this, the Anglo-Saxon alphabet, being taken from the Roman, excluded *k*, so that *c* was written even before the small vowels, *a*, *e*, *i*, *y*; as *cyning*, or *cining*, a *king*. *C* then supplants *k* upon etymological grounds only. In some of the languages derived from the Latin this dislike to the use of *k* leads to several orthographical inconveniences. As the tendency of *c* before *e*, *i*, *y*, to be sounded as *s* (or as a sound allied to *s*), is the same in those languages as in others; and as, in these languages as in others, there frequently occur such sounds as *kit*, *ket*, *kin*, &c., a difficulty arises as to the spelling. If spelt *cit*, *cet*, &c. there is risk of

their being sounded *sit*, *set*. To remedy this an *h* is interposed—*chit*, *chet*, &c. This however, only substitutes one difficulty for another, since *ch* is, in all probability, already used with a different sound· *e. g.* that of *sh*, as in French, or that of *k* guttural, as in German. The Spanish orthography is thus hampered. Unwilling to spell the word *chimera* (pronounced *kimera*) with a *k*; unable to spell it with either *c* or *ch*, it writes the word *quimera*. This distaste for *k* is an orthographic prejudice. Even in the way of etymology it is but partially advantageous: since in the other Gothic languages, where the alphabet is less rigidly Latin, the words that in English are spelt with a *c*, are there written with *k*—*kam*, German, *komme*, Danish, *skrapa*, Swedish = *came*, *come*, *scrape*.

That the syllables *cit*, *cyt*, *cet*, were at one time pronounced *kit*, *kyt*, *ket*, we believe. 1 from the circumstance that if it were not so, they would have been spelt with an *s*, 2 from the comparison of the Greek and Latin languages, where the words *cete*, *circus*, *cystis*, Latin, are *κητή*, *κίρκος*, *κύστις*, Greek.

In the words *mechanical*, *choler*, &c. derived from the Greek, it must not be imagined that the *c* represents the Greek *kappa* or *κ*. The combination *c + h* is to be dealt with as a single letter. Thus it was that the Romans, who had in their language neither the sound of *χ*, nor the sign *κ*, rendered the Greek *chi* (*χ*), just as by *th* they rendered *θ*, and by *ph*, *φ*.

The faulty representation of the Greek *χ* has given rise to a faulty representation of the Greek *κ*, as in *ascetic*, from *ἀσκήτι-κος*

§ 421 *G*—Where *c* is sounded as *k*, *g* is sounded as in *gun*.

Where *c* is sounded as *s*, *g* is sounded as *j* (*dzh*)—not always, though generally.

This engenders the use of *u* as an orthographic expedient. In words like *prorogue*, &c., its effect is to separate the *g* from the *e*, and (so doing) to prevent it being sounded as *j* (*dzh*).

§ 422 *The letter S*.—In a very large class of words the letter *s* is used in spelling where the real sound is that of the letter *z*. Words like *stags*, *balls*, *peas*, &c., are pronounced *stagz*, *ballz*, *peaz*. It is very important to be familiar with this orthographical substitution of *s* for *z*.

The reason for it is as follows.—

The words where it is so sounded are either possessive cases, or plural nominatives; as *stag's*, *stags*, *slab's*, *slabs*, &c.

Now in these words (and in words like them) the sounds of *g*

(in *stag*) and of *b* (in *slab*) come in immediate contact with the sound of the letter *s*.

But the sound of the letter *s* is sharp, whilst those of *g* and *b* are flat, so that the combinations *gs*, *bs*, are unpronounceable. Hence *s* is sounded *z*.

In the older stages of the English language a vowel was interposed between the last letter of the word and the letter *s*, and when that vowel was sounded, *s* was sounded also.

Hence *s* is retained in spelling, although its sound is the sound of *z*.

This fact of the final *s* being so frequently sounded as *z*, reduces the writer to a strait whenever he has to express the *true* sound of *s* at the end of a word. To write *s* on such an occasion would be to use a letter that would probably be mispronounced; that is, pronounced as *z*.

The first expedient he would hit upon would be to double the *s*, and write *ss*. But here he would meet with the following difficulty — A double consonant expresses the shortness of the vowel preceding, *töss*, *höss*, *ëgg*, &c. Hence a double *s* (*ss*) might be misinterpreted.

This throws the grammarian upon the use of *e*, which, as stated above, has, in certain situations, the power of *s*. To write, however, simply *sinc*, or *onc*, would induce the risk of the words being sounded *sink*, *onk*. To obviate this, *e* is added, which has the double effect of not requiring to be sounded (being mute), and of showing that the *c* has the sound of *s* (being small).

§ 423 *H* — The reason for *h* appearing in combination with *t* and *s*, in words like *thin* and *shine*, is as follows. —

The Greeks had in their language the sounds of both the *t* in *tin*, and of the *th* in *thin*.

These two sounds they viewed in a proper light; that is, they considered them both as simple single elementary sounds.

Accordingly they expressed them by signs, or letters, equally simple, single, and elementary. The first they denoted by the sign, or letter, τ , the second by the sign, or letter, θ .

They observed also the difference in sound between these two sounds.

To this difference of sound they gave names. The sound of τ (*t*) was called *psilon* (a word meaning *bare*). The sound of θ (*th*) was called *dusy* (a word meaning *rough*).

In the Latin language, however, there was no such sound as that of the *th* in *thin*.

And, consequently, there was no simple single sign to represent it.

Notwithstanding this the Latins knew of the sound, and of its being in Greek; and, at times, when they wrote words of Greek extraction, they had occasion to represent it.

They also knew that the sound was called *dasy*, in opposition to the sound of *t* (τ), which was *psilon*.

Now the Latins conceived that the difference between a sound called $\psi\iota\lambda\omicron\nu$, and a sound called $\delta\alpha\sigma\nu$, consisted in the latter being pronounced with a stronger breath, or breathing.

In the Latin language the word *aspiration* means *breathing*; so that, according to the views just stated, the Greek word *dasy* was translated by the Latin word *aspiratum* (i. e. *aspirated*, or *accompanied by a breathing*); than which nothing is more incorrect. A breathing is an aspirate, the power of the Greek $\delta\alpha\sigma\nu$ is asperate.

This being the case, the addition of the letter *h* was thought a fit way of expressing the difference between the sounds of the *t* in *tin*, and the *th* in *thin*.

As the influence of the Latin language was great, this view of the nature of the sound of *th* (and of sounds like it) became common.

The Anglo-Saxons, like the Greeks, had a simple single sign for the simple single sound: viz. β (for the *th* in *thin*), and θ (for the *th* in *thine*).

But their Norman conquerors had neither sound nor sign, and so they succeeded in superseding the Anglo-Saxon by the Latin mode of spelling.

Add to this, that they treated the two sounds of *th* (*thin* and *thine*) as one, and spelt them both alike.

CHAPTER VI.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE ENGLISH ALPHABET.

§ 424. WHAT were the chief peculiarities of the Angle sound-system? It contained—

1. The *th* in *thin*.—A sign in Greek (θ), but none in Latin.

2. The *th* in *thine*.—A sign neither in Greek nor Latin.
 3. The *ch* in the German *auch*.—A sign in Greek (χ), but none in Latin.

4. The flat sound of the same, or the probable sound of the *h* in *purh*, *leoht*, &c., Anglo-Saxon.—A sign neither in Greek nor Latin.

5. The *sh* in *shine*.—A sign neither in Greek nor Latin.

6. The *z* in *azure*.—A sign neither in Greek nor Latin.

7. The *ch* in *chest*.—A sign neither in Greek nor Latin, unless we suppose that at the time when the Anglo-Saxon alphabet was formed, the Latin *c* in words like *civitas* had the power which it has in the present Italian, of *ch*.

8 —The *j* in *jest*.—A sign neither in Greek nor Latin, unless we admit the same supposition in respect to *g*, that has been indicated in respect to *c*.

9. The sound of the *ky* in the Norwegian *kjenner*; viz. that (thereabouts) of *ksh*.—A sign neither in Latin nor Greek.

10. The English sound of *w*—A sign neither in Latin nor Greek.

11 The sound of the German *ü*, Danish *y*,—No sign in Latin, probably one in Greek, viz. *v*.

12. Signs for distinguishing the long and short powers of *e* and *η*, *o* and *ω*—Wanting in Latin, but existing in Greek.

§ 425. In all these points the classical alphabets (one or both) were deficient. To make up for their insufficiency one of two things was necessary—either to coin new letters, or to use conventional combinations of the old

In the Anglo-Saxon alphabet (derived from the Latin) we have the following features:—

1. *C* used to the exclusion of *k*.

2. The absence of the letter *j*, either with the power of *y*, as in German, of *zh*, as in French, or of *dzh*, as in English.

3. The absence of *q*; a useful omission, *cw* serving instead

4. The absence of *v*, *u*, either single or double, being used instead.

5. The use of *y* as a vowel, and of *e* as *y*.

6. The absence of *z*.

7. Use of *uu*, as *w*, or *v* in Old Saxon.

8. The use, in certain conditions, of *f* for *v*.

9. The presence of the simple single sounds *p* and *ƿ*, for the *th* in *thin*, and the *th* in *thine*, these being introduced as new signs.

The letter *w* was evolved out of *u*, being either an original improvement of the Anglo-Saxon orthographists, or a mode of expression borrowed from one of the allied languages of the Continent. Probably the latter was the case; since we find the following passage in the Latin dedication of Otfrid's *Krist* —

“Hucus enim linguae barbaries, ut est inculta et indisciplina bilis, atque in sueta capi regulari fieno grammaticæ artis, sic etiam in multis dictis scriptu est difficilis propter literarum aut congeiem, aut incognitam sonoritatem. Nam interdum tria *u u u* ut puto quærit in sona, priores duo consonantes, ut mihi videtur, tertium vocali sono manente.”

The Anglo-Saxon alphabet, although not originally meant to express a Gothic tongue at all, answered the purpose to which it was applied tolerably.

§ 426. Change, however, went on; and the orthography which suited the earlier Anglo-Saxon would not suit the later; at any rate, it would not suit the language which had become, or was becoming, *English*, wherein the sounds for which the Latin alphabet had no equivalent signs increase. Thus there is at present—

1. The sound of the *sh* in *shine*.
2. The sound of the *z* in *azure*.

How are these to be expressed? The rule has hitherto been to denote simple single sounds by simple single signs, and where such signs have no existence already, to *originate new ones*.

To *combine existing letters*, rather than to coin new ones, has been done but rarely. The Latin substitution of the combination *th* for the simple single *θ*, was exceptionable. It was a precedent, however, which was generally followed.

It is this precedent which accounts for the absence of any letter in English, expressive of either of the sounds in question.

Furthermore, our alphabet has not only not increased in proportion to our sound-system, but it has *decreased*. The Anglo-Saxon þ = the *th* in *thin* and ð = the *th* in *thine*, have become obsolete. Hence, a difference in pronunciation, which our ancestors expressed, *we* overlook.

This leads us to—

§ 427 The Anglo-Saxon language was *Gothic*, the alphabet *Roman*.

The *Anglo-Norman* language was *Roman*, the alphabet *Roman* also.

The Anglo-Saxon took his speech from one source; his writing from another.

The Anglo-Norman took both from the same.

Between the Latin alphabet as applied to the Anglo-Saxon, and the Latin alphabet as applied to the Norman-French, there are certain points of difference. In the first place, the sound-system of the languages (like the French) derived from the Latin, bore a greater resemblance to that of the Romans, than was to be found amongst the Gothic tongues. Secondly, the alphabets of the languages in point were more exclusively Latin. In the present French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese, there is an exclusion of the *k*. This is not the case with the Anglo-Norman. Like the Latins, the Anglo-Normans considered that the sound of the Greek *θ* was represented by *th*: not, however, having this sound in their language, they had no corresponding sign in their alphabet. The greatest mischief done by the Norman influence was the ejection from the English alphabet of *þ* and *ð*. In other respects the alphabet was improved. The letters *z*, *h*, *j*, were either imported or more currently recognized. The letter *y* took a semi-vowel power, having been previously represented by *e*, itself having the power of *i*. The mode of spelling the compound sibilant with *ch* was evolved. My notions concerning this mode of spelling are as follows.—At a given period the sound of *ce* in *ceaster*, originally that of *le*, had become, first, that of *ksh*, and, secondly, that of *tsh*, still it was spelt *ce*, the *e*, in the eyes of the Anglo-Saxons, having the power of *y*. In the eyes also of the Anglo-Saxons the compound sound of *ksh*, or *tsh*, would differ from that of *k* by the addition of *y*, this, it may be said, was the Anglo-Saxon view of the matter. The Anglo-Norman view was different. Modified by the part that, in the combination *th*, was played by the aspirate *h*, it was conceived by the Anglo-Normans, that *ksh*, or *tsh*, differed from *k*, not by the addition of *y* (expressed by *e*), but by that of *h*. Hence, the combination *ch* as sounded in *chest*. The same was the case with *sh*.

It is safe to say that in his adaptation of the alphabet of one language to the sound-system of another, the Angle allowed himself greater latitude, and acted with a more laudable boldness, than the Norman.



PART IV.

ETYMOLOGY.

CHAPTER I.

COMPOSITION DEFINED.—ACCENT.—ORDER OF ELEMENTS.—
APPARENT EXCEPTIONS.—DETAILS.

§ 428. *Composition is the joining together, in language, of two different words, treated as a single term.* Observe the following elements in this definition:—

1. *In language.*—Words like *merry-making* are divided by the hyphen. Now, it is very plain that if all words *spelt* with a hyphen were to be considered as compounds, the formation of them would be not a matter of speech or *language*, but one of writing or spelling. This distinguishes compounds in *language* from mere printers' compounds

2. *Different.*—In Old High-German we find the form *selp-selpo*. Here there is the junction of two words, but not the junction of two *different* ones. This distinguishes composition proper from *geminatio*.

3. *Words.*—In *father-s*, *clear-er*, *four-th*, &c, there is the addition of a letter or a syllable, and it may be even of the part of a word. There is no addition, however, of a whole one. This distinguishes composition from *derivation*.

4. *Treating the combination as a single term.*—In the eyes of one grammarian the term *mountain height* may be as truly a compound word as *sunbeam*. In the eyes of another it may be no compound but *two* words like *Alpine height*; *mountain* being dealt with as an adjective.

§ 429. It is in the determination of this that the *accent* plays an important part.

The attention of the reader is drawn to the following line, slightly altered, from Churchill

Then rést, my fréind, *and spáre* thy précious bréath

Compared with *and*, the verb *spare* is not only accented, but the accent is conspicuous and prominent. There is so little on the one word and so much on the other, that the disparity is very manifest. But this disparity may be diminished. The true reading is—

Then rést, my fréind, *sparé, sparé* thy précious bréath

Where we actually find what had previously only been supposed. In the words *sparé, sparé*, the accents are nearly at *par*. To proceed. Good illustrations of the parity and disparity of accent may be drawn from certain names of places. Let there be such a sentence as *the lime house near the new port*. Compare the parity of accent here, with the disparity of accent in the compound words *Límehouse* and *Néwport*. Compare, too, *bláck bírd*, meaning a *bird* that is *black*, with *bláckbird*, the Latin *merula*, or *blué báll*, meaning a *bell* that is *blue*, with *blúebell*, the flower. Expressions like a *shárp élded instrument*, meaning an *instrument that is sharp and has edges*, as opposed to a *shárp-edged instrument*, meaning an *instrument with sharp edges*, further exemplify this difference. Subject to a few exceptions, it may be laid down, that, in the English language, *there is no composition unless there be either a change of form or a change of accent*.

§ 430 In a *red house*, each word preserves its natural and original meaning, and the statement suggested by the term is *that a house is red*. By a parity of reasoning, a *mad house* should mean a *house that is mad*, and, provided that each word retain its natural meaning and its natural accent, such is the fact. Let a *hoúse* mean, as it often does, a *family*. Then the phrase, a *mad house*, means that the *house*, or *family*, is *mad*, just as a *red house* means that the *house* is *red*. Such, however, is not the current meaning of the word. Every one knows that a *mad house* means a *house for mad men*; in which case it is treated as a compound word, and has a marked accent on the first syllable, just as *Límehouse* has. Compared with the words *red house*, meaning a house of a *red colour*, and compared with the words *mad house*, meaning a *deranged family*, the word *mádhóuse*, in its common sense, expresses a compound

idea, as opposed to two ideas, or a double idea. Such is the commentary upon *treating the combination as a single term*, in other words, such is the difference between a *compound word* and *two words*.

§ 431. In compound words it is the *first* term that defines or particularizes the *second*. That the idea given by the word *apple-tree* is not referable to the words *apple* and *tree*, irrespective of the order in which they occur, may be seen by reversing the position of them. *Tree-apple*, although not existing in the language, is as correct a term as *thorn-apple*. In *tree-apple*, the particular sort of *apple* meant is denoted by the word *tree*, and if there were in our gardens various sorts of plants called *apples*, of which some grew along the ground and others upon trees, such a word would be required in order to be opposed to *earth-apple*, or *ground-apple*, or some word of the kind. However, as the word is *not* current in the language, the class of compounds indicated by it may seem to be merely imaginary. Nothing, however, is further from being the case. A *tree-rose* is a *rose*, a *rose-tree* a *tree* of a particular sort. A *ground-nut* is a *nut* particularized by growing in the ground. A *nut-ground* is a *ground* particularized by producing nuts. A *finger-ring*, as distinguished from *ear-rings* and from *rings* in general, is a *ring* for the *finger*. A *ring-finger*, as distinguished from *fore-fingers* and from *fingers* in general, is a *finger* whereon *rings* are worn. At times this rule seems to be violated. The words *spitfire* and *daredevil* seem exceptions to it. At the first glance it seems, in the case of a *spitfire*, that what he (or she) *spits* is *fire*; and that in the case of a *daredevil* what he (or she) *dares* is the *devil*. If so, the initial words *spit* and *dare* are particularized by the final ones *fire* and *devil*. The true idea, however, confirms the original rule. A *spitfire* voids his fire by spitting. A *daredevil*, in meeting the fiend, would not only not shrink from him, but would defy him. A *spitfire* is not one who spits *fire*, but one whose *fire* is *spit*. A *daredevil* is not one who dares even the devil, but one by whom the *devil* is even *dared*. Again, in words like *pea-cock* and *pea-hen*, &c., we have apparent exceptions. They are, however, only *apparent*. The word *pea* (though now found in composition only) was, originally, an independent word, and the name of a species of fowl, like *pheasant*, *partridge*, or any other appellation. It was the Latin *pavo*, German *pfaue*. Hence, if the word *peacock* mean a *pea* (*pfaue* or *pavo*) that is male, then do *wood-cock*, *black-cock*,

and *gor-cock*, mean *woods*, *blacks*, and *gors* that are male. Or if the word *peahen* mean a *pea* (*pfau* or *pavo*) that is female, then do *moorhen* and *guineahen* mean *moors* and *guineas* that are female. Again, if a *peahen* mean a *pea* (*pfau* or *pavo*) that is female, then does the compound *pheasant-hen* mean the same as *henpheasant*, which is not the case. The fact is, that *peacock* means a *cock that is a pea* (*pfau* or *pavo*), *peahen* means a *hen that is a pea* (*pfau* or *pavo*), and, finally, *peafowl* means a *fowl that is a pea* (*pfau* or *pavo*). In the same way *moorfowl* means, not a *moor that is connected with a fowl*, but a *fowl that is connected with a moor*.

§ 432. Composition is the addition of a *word* to a word, derivation the addition of certain *sounds* or *syllables* to a word. In a compound, *each* element has a separate and independent existence, in a derivative, only *one* of the elements has such. Now it is very possible that in an older stage of a language two words may exist, may be put together, and may form a compound, each word having a separate and independent existence, whilst in a later stage of the language, only one of these words may have a separate and independent existence, the other having become obsolete. In this case a compound word would take the appearance of a derived one, inasmuch as only one of its elements could be exhibited. Such is the case with (amongst others) the word *bishopric*. In the present language the word *ric*, with the sense here required, has no separate and independent existence. For all this, the compound is a true one, since in Anglo-Saxon we have the noun *rice* as a separate, independent word, signifying *kingdom* or *domain*. Again, without becoming obsolete, a word may alter its form. This is the case with most of our adjectives in *-ly*. At present they appear to be derivative; the termination *-ly* having no separate and independent existence. The older language, however, shows that they are compounds; since *-ly* is nothing else but *-lic*, Anglo-Saxon; *-lih*, Old High-German; *-leiks*, Mæso-Gothic = *like*, or *similis* = *otherwise*, *in vain*.

The following words are in the same predicament.

Mis-, as in *misdeed*, &c.—Mæso-Gothic, *missō* = *in turns*, Old Norse, *á mis* = *alternately*; Middle High-German, *misse* = *mistake*. The original notion was that of *alternation*, thence *change*, thence *defect*. Compare the Greek *ἄλλως*.

Dom, as in *wisdom*, &c.—the substantive being *dōm*.

Hood, and *heud*, as in *Godhead*, *manhood*, &c. The sub-

stantive being *háids* = *person, order, kind* Nothing to do with the word *haul*.

Ship, as in *friendship* — Anglo-Saxon, *-scipe*, and *-scaft*; German, *-schaft*, Meeso-Gothic, *gaskufts* = *a creature, or creation*, The *-ship* or *-scape* in *landship* is only an older form. Nothing to do with the ship that sails

Less, as in *sleepless*, &c., has nothing to do with *less*. Derived from *lāus, lós, destitute of* = Latin *expers*

§ 433 It must be clear, *ex vi termini*, that in every compound there are *two* parts; *i e* the whole or part of the original, and the whole or part of the superadded, word. Are there ever *more* than two? Yes There is, sometimes, a third element, viz. a vowel, consonant, or syllable, that joins the first word with the second. In the older forms of all the German languages the presence of this third element was the rule rather than the exception. In the present English it exists in but few words; and that doubtfully.

(a) The *-a-* in *black-a-moor* is possibly such a connecting element

(b) The *-in-* in *night-in-gale* is, perhaps, one also Compare the German form *nacht-i-gall*, and remember the tendency of vowels to take the sound of *-ng* before *g*

§ 434 The *-s-* in words like *Thurs-day, hunt-s-man*, may be one of two things—

(a) It may be the sign of the genitive case, so that *Thursday* = *Thoris dies* In this case the word, like *pater-familias* in Latin, is in a common state of syntactic construction

(b) It may be a connecting sound, like the *-i-* in *nacht-i-gall* Reasons for this view occur in the fact that in the modern German the genitive case of *feminine* nouns ends otherwise than in *-s*, whilst, nevertheless, the sound of *-s-* occurs in composition whether the noun it follows be masculine or feminine. This fact, as far as it goes, makes it convenient to consider the sound in question as a connective rather than a case. Probably, it is neither one nor the other exactly, but the effect of a false analogy.

§ 435 Words like *midshipman, gentlemanlike, &c.*, must be treated as formations from a compound radical: and analyzed thus—*midship-man, gentleman-like*.

§ 436. There is a number of words which are rarely found by themselves; or, if so found, have rarely the same sense that they have in *combination*. Such are the expressions *time and*

tide—might and main—rede me my riddle—pay your shot—rhyme and reason, &c

§ 437. By attending to the following sections we shall see in what way the different parts of speech are capable of being put together by composition.

Substantives preceded by Substantives.—*Day-star, morning-star, evening-star, land-slip, watch-house, light-house, rose-tree, oak-tree, fir-tree, harvest-time, goose-grass, sea-man, collar-bone, shoulder-blade, ground-nut, earth-nut, hazel-nut, fire-wood, sun-light, moon-light, star-light, torch-light, &c*

Substantives preceded by Adjectives.—*Blind-worm, free-man, half-penny, grey-beard, green-sward, white-thorn, black-thorn, mid-day, mid-summer, quick-silver, holy-day, &c.*

Substantives preceded by Verbs.—*Turn-spit, spit-fire, dare-devil, sing-song, turn-coat, &c.*

Substantives preceded by the form in -ing.—*Turning-lathe, sawing-mill*

Adjectives preceded by Substantives.—*Sinful, thankful, blood-red, eye-bright, coal-black, snow-white, nut-brown, heart-whole, ice-cold, foot-sore, &c.*

Adjectives preceded by Adjectives.—*All-mighty, two-fold, many-fold, &c.*

Adjectives preceded by Verbs.—*Stand-still, live-long.*

Verbs preceded by Substantives.—*God-send.* Rare

Verbs preceded by Adjectives.—*Little-heed, rough-hew (?)*.
Rare.

Verbs preceded by Verbs.—*Hear-say* Rare.

Present Participles preceded by Adjectives.—*All-seeing, all-ruling, soft-flowing, fast-sailing, merry-making.*

Past Participles preceded by Adjectives.—*New-born, free-spoken, fresh-made, new-made, new-laid.*

Present Participles preceded by Substantives.—*Fruit-bearing, music-making.*

Past Participles preceded by Substantives.—*Heaven-born, bed-ridden, blood-stained.*

Verbal Substantives preceded by Substantives.—*Man-eater, woman-eater, kid-snapper, horn-blower.*

Verbal Adjectives preceded by Substantives.—*Mop-headed, chicken-hearted.*

Verbal Adjectives preceded by Adjectives.—*Cold-hearted, flaxen-haired, hot-headed, curly-pated*

§ 438. *Adverbs* entering into composition are of two sorts :—(1.) Those that can be separated from the word with which they combine, and, nevertheless, appear as independent words, as *over*, *under*, *well*, &c (2) Those that, when they are separated from the verb with which they combine, have no independent existence as separate words—(a) *Be-hove*, *be-fit*, *be-seem*, *be-lieve*, *be-lie*, *be-spatter*, *be-smear*, *be-get*, *be-labour*, *be-do*, *be-gin*, *be-gird*, *be-hold*, *be-mourn*, *be-reave*, *be-deck*, *be-think*, *be-mire*, *be-rhyme*. The forms throughout the allied languages are generally *bi-* or *be-*. (b) *Un-bind*, *un-do*, *un-loose*, *un-lock*, *un-wind*. The forms of this Inseparable in the different allied languages are—in Mæso-Gothic, *and-*; in Old High-German, *ind-*, *int-*, *in-*, in Old Saxon, *ant-*; in Middle and New High-German, *ent-*; in Anglo-Saxon, *on-*; as *on-bindan* (*un-bind*), *on-don* (*un-do*), *on-lȳsan* (*un-loose*), *on-lūcan* (*un-lock*), *on-windan* (*un-wind*). (c) *A-light*, *a-rouse*, *a-rise*, *a-wake*, *a-waken*, *a-bet*, *a-bide*, *a-llay*. The forms of this Inseparable are different in the different allied languages. In Mæso-Gothic, *us-*, in Old High-German, *ur-*, *ar-*, *vr-*, *er-*, *er-*; in Old Saxon, and in Anglo-Saxon, *ā-*; as *ā-rīsan* (*arise*), *ā-weccan* (*a-wake*). (d) *For-get*, *for-do*, *for-go*, *for-give*, *for-bid*, *for-bear*, *for-swear*. The *for-* here is of a different origin, and different in meaning and power, from the *fore-* in words like *fore-tell*. In the different allied languages it takes different forms. In Mæso-Gothic, *fair*, *fuār*, *fra*. In Old High-German, *far*, *fer*, *fir*, *for*. In Middle and New High-German, *ver*. In Anglo-Saxon, *for*.

§ 439 *Compound Pronouns*.—Of those words which, though really compound, look most especially like simple ones, certain pronouns are the most important; and of these the foremost is

1. *Which*.—To follow the ordinary grammarians, and to call it the neuter of *who*, is a blunder. It is no neuter at all, but a compound word. The adjective *leiks*, *like*, is preserved in the Mæso-Gothic words *galeiks* and *missaleiks*. In Old High-German the form is *lih*, in Anglo-Saxon *lic*. Hence we have Mæso-Gothic, *hveleiks*; Old High-German, *huelih*; Anglo-Saxon, *hwilic* and *hwile*; Old Frisian, *hwelik*, Danish, *hvilken*; German, *welch*; Scotch, *whilk*; English, *which*. The same is the case with—

2 *Such*.—Mæso-Gothic, *svaleiks*; Old High-German, *sōlih*,

Old Saxon, *sulic*; Anglo-Saxon, *swile*, German, *solch*, English, *such*. Rask's derivation of the Anglo-Saxon *swile* from *swa-ylc*, is exceptionable.

3 *Thilk*—An old English word, found in the provincial dialects, as *thick*, *thuck*, *theck*, and hastily derived by many good authorities from *se ylca*, is found in the following forms: Mæso-Gothic, *þēleiks*, Norse, *hvilikr*.

4. *Ilk*—Found in the Scotch, and generally preceded by *that*, as *that ilk*, meaning *the same*. In Anglo-Saxon this word is *ylca*, preceded also by the article; *se ylca*, *seō ylce*, *þæt ylce*. In English, as seen above, the word is replaced by *same*.

5. *Each*—The particle *i* or *e* from *gi* enters in the composition of pronouns. Old High-German, *ēogulihēr*, every one; *ēocalih*, all; Middle High-German, *jegelich*. New High-German, *jeglich*, Anglo-Saxon, *alc*, English, *each*, the *l* being dropped as in *which* and *such*. *Ælc*, as the original of the English *each* and the Scotch *ilka*,* must by no means be confounded with the word *ylce*, *the same*.

6 *Every*, in Old English, *everich*, *everech*, *everilk one*, is *alc*, preceded by the particle *ever*.

7. *Either*.—Old High-German, *ēogahuedar*, Middle High-German, *regeweder*, Anglo-Saxon, *æghwaðer*, *æyðer*, Old Frisian, *eider*.

8 *Neither*.—The same with *n-* prefixed.

9 *Aught*.—In Mæso-Gothic is found the particle *air*, *ever*, but only in negative propositions, *ni* (*not*) preceding it. Its Old High-German form is *ēo*, *io*, in Middle High-German, *ie*, in New High-German, *je*, in Old Saxon, *io*, in Anglo-Saxon, *ā*, in Norse, *æ*. Combined with this particle, the word *whit* (*thing*) gives the following forms: Old High-German, *ēowiht*; Anglo-Saxon, *āwilt*, Old Frisian, *āwet*, English, *ought*. The word *naught* is *ought* preceded by the negative particle

§ 440. *Further remarks on the compounds of like*.—The previous statements have shown that the adjective *like*, when it enters into composition, is a peculiar word. It has a great tendency to change its form. The pronouns *which* and *such* more especially show this; inasmuch as, in them, even the characteristic *l* is lost. So it is in Frisian, where *hok* = *which*, and *sok* = *such*.

* Different from *ilk*.

The change into *-ly* now commands a notice. Add it to a Substantive, and the result is an Adjective; as *man*, *manly*. Add it to an Adjective, and the result is an Adverb; as *brave*, *brave-ly*. But what if the Adjective already end in *-ly*, as *daily*? Can we say *daily-ly*? For further notice upon this point see the Syntax of Adjectives

§ 441. *Ten and ty*.—The words *thir-teen*, *four-teen*, &c., are compounds. This is clear. It is equally clear that they are compounds of *three* (or *four*) and *ten*—their arithmetical value being $3 + 10 = 13$. That words like *thir-ty*, *for-ty*, &c., are also compound is not quite so evident, inasmuch as the element *-ty* has no separate and independent existence. Nevertheless, the words in question are not only compounds, but their elements are *three* (or *four*, &c.) and *ten*—or if not the actual word *ten*, one of its derivatives. In Mæso-Gothic we find the root *-tig* used as a true substantive, equivalent in form as well as power to the Greek *δέκ-ας*—*tváim tīgum þusandjom* = *duobus decadibus myriadum*; (Luke xiv. 31) *jérē þrijē tīgivē* = *annorum duarum decadum*. (Luke iii. 23) *þrins tīgus silubrinnaize* = *tres decadus argenteorum*. (Matthew xxvii. 3. 9)

In Icelandic, the numbers from 20 to 100 are formed by means of *tigr*, declined like *viðr*, and naturally taking the word which it numerically determines in the genitive case

Nom	Fjórir tigr manna	=	four tens of men.
Gen.	Fjórum tīga manna	=	of four tens of men
Dat	Fjórum tīgum manna	=	to four tens of men
Acc	Fjóra tīga manna	=	four tens of men

This is the form of the inflection in the best and oldest MSS. A little later was adopted the *indeclinable* form *tīgi*, which was used adjectivally*

§ 442. *Eleven*.—The *e* in *e-leven* is *ein* = *one*. *Ein-lif*, *ein-lef*, *eilef*, *eilf*, *elf*, Old High-German; *andlova*, Old Frisian, *end-leofan*, *end-lufan*, Anglo-Saxon. This is universally admitted.

The *-lev-* is a modification of the root *laib-an* = *manere* = *to stay* = *to be over*. Hence *eleven* = *one over ten*. This is not universally admitted

* *Det Oldnorske Sprogs Grammatik*, af P. A. Munch, og C. B. Unger, Christiania, 1847.

§ 443 *Twelve* = the root *two* + the root *laib* = *two over ten* *Tvalif*, Mæso-Gothic, *zuelif*, Old High-German; *toll*, Swedish. —The same doubts that apply to the doctrine that the *-lv-* in *eleven* represents the root *-laib*, apply to the *-lv-* in *twelve*. They arise out of the belief, held by many competent judges, in a series of letter-changes which would bring *l-f* (or *l-v*) out of *d-k* = *ten*; in which case the numerals in question, instead of being peculiar in their composition, would follow the principle which gives us *thirteen*, *fourteen*, and the rest; and simply stand for $10 + 1$, and $10 + 2$. The chief fact in favour of this is the Lithuanic form *lik*, wherein *l* is reasonably believed to represent *d*.

Father + his —The doctrine, now (as it is to be hoped) no longer common, that the forms like *father's* are a corruption of *father his*, is only noticed to be condemned. Expressions like *Jesus Christ his sake* are the chief foundation for it. But

1. Expressions like *the Queen's Majesty* cannot be so explained

2. Nor yet expressions like *the children's bread*

3. *His*, cannot be *he + his*

4. The *s* is really the *s* in *patris* from *pater*, and other genitive cases, both in Latin and the allied languages

CHAPTER II.

DERIVATION —CLASSIFICATION OF DERIVATIVES. —DETAILS

§ 444 DERIVATION proper may be divided according to a variety of principles. Amongst others—

1. *According to the evidence*.—In the evidence that a word is not simple, but derived, there are at least two degrees. Thus—

(a) That the word *strength* is a derivative, I infer from the word *strong*, an independent form, which I can separate from it. Of the nature of the word *strength* there is the clearest evidence, or evidence of the first degree.

(b) *Fowl*, *hail*, *nail*, *sail*, *tail*, *soul*, &c, are in Anglo-Saxon *fugel*, *hægel*, *nægel*, *segel*, *tegel*, *sæwel*, and by the best gram-

marians, are considered as derivatives. Yet, with these words I cannot do what was done with the word *strength*. I cannot take from them the part which I look upon as the derivational addition, and after that leave an independent word. *Strength* without the final *th* is a true word; *fowl* or *fugel* without the final *l* is no true word. If I believe these latter words to be derivations at all, I do it because I find in words like *hundle*, &c, the *-l* as a derivational addition. Yet, as the fact of a sound being, sometimes, used as a derivational addition does not preclude it from being, at other times, a part of the root, the evidence that the words in question are not simple, but derived, is not absolutely conclusive. In other words, it is evidence of the second degree

2. *According to the effect*—The syllable *-en* in the word *whiten* changes the noun *white* into a verb. This is its effect. We may so classify our derivatives as to arrange combinations like *-en* (whose effect is to give the idea of the verb) in one group; whilst combinations like *th* (whose effect is to give the idea of abstraction) form another order.

3 *According to the form*—Sometimes the derivational element is a vowel (as in the *-ie* in *doggie*), sometimes a consonant (as the *-th* in *strength*); sometimes a syllable (as the *-en* in *whiten*); sometimes a change of vowel without any addition (as the *i* in *tip*, compared with *top*), sometimes a change of consonant without any addition (as the *z* in *prize*, compared with *price*) To classify derivations in this manner is to classify them according to their form.

4. *According to the number of the derivational elements*.—In *fisher*, as compared with *fish*, there is but one derivational affix. In *fishery*, as compared with *fish*, the number of derivational elements is two.

§ 445 In the present work none of these principles will be exclusively adhered to. On the contrary, at the expense of a little repetition, a *general* view of our several derivational *forms* will be followed by a series of remarks upon our Diminutive, our Patronymic, our Gentile, Abstract and other nouns,—some of these groups being of particular etymological importance

§ 446. *Details in the way of form*—Addition of a vowel, —*Bab-y* from *babe*. In Lowland Scotch this is far more common, and is spelt *-ie*, as *dogg-ie*, *lass-ie*, *ladd-ie*, *mous-i-e*, *wif-ie*.

Addition of L.—1. Substantives.—*gird-le*, *kern-el*.

2. Adjectives — *litt-le*, *mick-le*

3 Verbs.—*spark-le*

Addition of R.—Substantives.—(a) Words that in A. S. ended in *-er*, and were of the *masculine* gender—*laugh-t-er*, *slaugh-t-er*.

(b) Words that in A. S. ended in *-er*, and were of the *neuter* gender—*lay-er*, *fodd-er*.

(c) Words that in A. S. ended in *-ere*, and were of the *masculine* gender. These are the names of agents, *e. g.* *read-er*, *sinn-er*, *harp-er*, *hunt-er*, *lend-er*, &c

(d) Words that in A. S. ended in *-ra*, and were of the *masculine*—*gander* (A. S. *gand-ra*).

Verbs—*hind-er*, *low-er*.

Addition of N —Substantives —*maid-en*, *ma-in* (as in *might* and *main*) That the *-n* is no part of the original word in *mai-n*, we see from the word *may*. The idea in both *may* and *mai-n* is that of *power*

Adjectives —Words of this sort express the circumstance of the object to which they are applied, being *made of the material of which* the radical part of the derivative is the name. Thus, *gold-en* is a derivative from *gold*, the material of which *golden guineas* are made. So, also, *oak-en*, *ash-en*, *beech-en*, *braz-en*, *flux-en*, *gold-en*, *lead-en*, *silk-en*, *wood-en*, *wooll-en*, *hemp-en*, *wheat-en*, *oat-en*, *wax-en* These, and their like, though not uncommon in the present English, were much commoner in A. S., where, in addition to the foregoing, we find—

Treow-en	=	made of wood (tree)
Stán-en	=	— stone
Silfi-en	=	— silver
Gypei-en	=	— copper
Tigel-en	=	— pottery (tile)
Clæs-en	=	— glass
Hryn-en	=	— horn
Fell-en	=	— skin (fell),

and others. In—

Ber-en	=	appertaining to bears
Gæt-en	=	— goats
Swin-en	=	— swine
Yter-en	=	— otters,

the idea of *material* is departed from.

The form of this affix was, originally, *-ein*

Mæso-Gothic

Baiz-em-s	=	made of barley (bere)
Silubr-em-s	=	— silver
Eisain-em-s	=	— iron
Fill-em-s	=	— shin (fell)
Thaûn-em-s	=	— thorn.

In *Old High* and *Middle High-German*, the long form continues, e. g. *stein-in*, *durn-in*=*made of stone*, *made of thorn*. In the *New High-German*, the form is simply *-en*, or *-n*

Addition of the sound of O, originating in *-ow* or *-ov*, and spelt in the present English *-ow*—By comparison with *shade* and *mead*, the forms *shad-ow* and *mead-ow* are shown to be derivative; the evidence being conclusive. We can isolate the simpler form, and, still, find a word actually existent in the present language.

The evidence that the *-ow* in the following words is derivational is less decided; or (changing the expression) words like *gallows*, &c. are in the same category with *haul*, *tail*, &c. The *w* has grown out of a *-g*

<i>English</i>	<i>Frisian</i>	<i>English</i>	<i>Frisian</i>
Bail-ow	bail-ig	Swall-ow	swäll-ig
Gall-ou-s	gul-ig	Fall-ou	tall-ig
Fur-ou	furi-ig	Mall-ou	mai-ig
Spar-ou	späil-ig	Tall-ou	tul-ig

To a great extent this form in *w* (=v) is Danish; e g. in Danish *marv*=*marrow*, though, in Swedish, the word is *merg*. In the Danish *fur* and *spur*=*furrow* and *sparrow* the change is carried further. *Swallow*=the Frisian *swallig* means *throat*, being, in the present English, more or less of a vulgarity, i e. when used as a substantive. *Swallow*, the name of the bird, has a different origin, and its *w* represents *b*, as in the German *schwalbe*.

Addition of T.—1 Substantives —(a) Words which in A S ended in *-t*: *gif-t*, *skrif-t*, *thef-t*, *wef-t* (*weave*), *rif-t*, *drif-t*, *thrif-t*, *fros-t* (*freeze*), *gris-t* (*grind*), *fligh-t*, *sigh-t*, *draugh-t* (*draw*), *weigh-t*.

(b) Words which in A. S ended in *-ta* The compounds of the word *wright* (from the root *work*, in the old past tense *wrought*); such as *cart-wright-t*, *wheel-wright-t*, *mill-wright-t*, &c.

2. Adjectives.—*tigh-t* (*tie*).

Addition of D.—Substantives.—*bran-d* (*burn*, *brenn*, obsolete), *floo-d* (*flow*), *mui-d* (*may* in Lowland Scotch), *see-d* (*sow*), *burd-en* (*bear*).

Addition of TH (A. S. *þ* as sounded in *thin*)—1. Substantives—*dea-th*, *tru-th*, *weal-th*, *fil-th*, *til-th* (*tillage*) or (*tilled ground*), *li-th* (as in the phrase *kith and kin*)

2 Adjectives—The syllables *-cou-th* in the compound word *uncou-th*. This word originally means *unknown*, originating in the word *ken* = *to know*.

Addition of TH (A. S. *ð*) as sounded in *thine*,—*bur-th-en* derived from *bear*.

Addition of the sound of the Z in *zeal*—Verbs, *cleanse* (*cleanz*) from *clean*. In A. S. *clan-s-ian*.

Addition of the sound of K—*kill-ock*.

Addition of the sound of the vowel E (as in *feet*), originating in *-ig*, and spelt, in the present English, *-y*—Of words like *blood-y*, *craft-y*, *drear-y*, *might-y*, *mist-y*, *mood-y*, *meer-y*, *worth-y*, &c., the A. S. forms were *blōd-ig*, *cræft-ig*, *dreōr-ig*, *might-ig*, *mīst-ig*, *mōd-ig*, *myr-ig*, *worth-ig*, &c

Addition of *-ing*, originally *-ung*—*furth-ing* ($\frac{1}{4}$), *rid-ing*, as in the three *Ridings* of Yorkshire, a corruption from *thrith-ing*, *cleans-ing*, *dawn-ing*, *morn-ing*. The fact that the *i*, in these words, was originally *u* is of great importance; as will be seen when we come to the consideration of the verbal abstracts. This is because, at the present moment, the syllable *-ing* is the termination of the present participle, so that (as far as the *form* goes) *dawn-ing* may be one of two things. It may be either the substantive *dawn* + the termination *-ing*, or the participle of the verb *dawn*. *Morn-ing*, however, can scarcely come from such a verb as *morn*. Meanwhile, *cleansing* is, to all appearances, more readily derived from the verb *cleanse* than from aught else. *Cleaving*, however, might be from either *clean* the adjective, or from *clean* the verb. More will be said upon these points in the sequel.

Addition of *-kin*—*lamb-kin* (*little lamb*), *mann-i-kin* (*little man*)

Addition of the syllable *-ard*.—*drunk-ard*, *stink-ard*.

Addition of the syllable *-old*.—*thresh-ol*.

Addition of the syllable *-ern*.—*east-ern*, *west-ern*, *north-ern*, *south-ern*.

Addition of the syllable *-ish*—*child-ish*, *Engl-ish*, *self-ish*,

whit-ish. The original form was *-ish*; *cild-ish* (*childish*), *Engl-isc* (*Engl-ish*), A. S.

Addition of the syllable *-ness*—*good-ness*, *bad-ness*, *wicked-ness*, *bright-ness*, *dark-ness*, *weari-ness*, *dreari-ness*, &c

Change of the sound of a *consonant*—*cloth*, *clothe*, *grass*, *graze*. In each of these pairs of words the former is a substantive and the latter a verb.

Change of the sound of a *vowel* (a) Verbs—*rise*, *raise* *lie*, *lay* · *fall*, *fell* · *sit*, *set*. (b) Substantives—*top*, *tip*; *cat*, *kit*.

§ 447. In words like *fishery* and others, the analysis is *fish-er-y*. In all such there are two derivational elements and the result is a double derivative. Of the details more will appear in the sequel.

§ 448 It was stated that certain compounds take the form of derivatives. It is now stated that certain derivatives may take the form of compounds. Let a word contain two derivational elements and let the combination coincide with some word actually in existence. That this is, by no means, impossible, is shown by forms in *ling* where *l + i + ng* gives us the name of a fish (*ling*). In this case, however, there is no fear of error. Every one knows that *duck-ling* is anything but the name of a *bird-fish*, anything but a *ling* of the *duck* kind. As far, however, as its mere *form* is concerned, it might have been one. What, however, if in words like *utmost* the *m-* be one derivational element, and the *-ost* another? In such a case a derivative would simulate a compound, to an extent that might mislead. Whether such be really the case may be seen below.*

§ 449 For remarks upon Hybridism, see above. Of the exceptionable forms that have a fair claim to be considered as naturalized the most important are the following:

1 *The French feminine termination -ess attached to English roots*.—To say *duck-ess*, or *count-ess*, is correct. To say *shepherd-ess* is common, though exceptionable. No one, however, calls a female *fox* a *fox-ess*.

2. When the *-ess* is preceded by *-r-*, the result is *-ress*. The *-r-*, however, is no sign of gender. It is, itself, often preceded by *-t-*, which is no sign of gender either. In the Latin word *genitor* it is so preceded. The *-t-*, however, is non-radical, so that the analysis is *geni-t-or* = *producer* = *further*; wherein the

* Chapter on the Superlative Degree

-r- denotes agency, and the *-t-* in *geni-t-us*—wanting in *genui*, *genus*, &c. These words in *-t-or* (observe the vowel *o*) form a natural class. They belong to the same declension, and they have a corresponding feminine in *-ix*; e. g. *geni-t-or*, *father*; *geni-t-rix*, *mother*. The oblique cases of *genitrix* are *geni-tricis*, *geni-trici*, *geni-tricem*, *geni-trice*. They give, in the French, *-trice*, corresponding with the masculine form in *-eur* (= *or*). Hence—Latin, *actor*, *actrix*; French, *acteur*, *actrice*; English, *actor*, *actress*. In all these cases the vowel is *o*. Hence, the *-r* in *master*, though preceded by *-t-*, is not in the same category with the *-r* in *actor*. The Latin is *magister*; Genitive, *magistri*, in French it is *maître*, in the Feminine, *maîtresse*. The word, however, is an exceptional one; and, for practical purposes, the combination *-tr-* may be treated as accidental. The main fact connected with the words in *-tress*, is that their analysis is *t-r-ess*, their origin in *-tricis*, *-tricem*, &c. in words like *genitrices*, &c, and their masculine *-tor*—*tor-* with an *o*, as *auctor*, *actor*, which in French becomes *eu*—*auteur*, *acteur*.

But the *-r-*, as a sign of agency, is English as well as Latin. However, the English termination is *-er*—never *-or*. We say *fact-or* rather than *fact-er*, but *bak-er* rather than *bak-or*.

The root is a verb. It is a verb, even where it looks most like a noun; as in *harp-er*, *hatt-er*, *glov-er*, where *harp*, *hut*, and *glove*=*play on harp*, *make hats*, *make gloves*. It is a verb and an English verb. Let, however, the verb in question be of foreign origin, yet treated as if it were English. In this case we get words like *governor*, which are neither English nor French.

Hybridism, and the inaccuracies of spelling to which it leads, are the chief points that command our attention with Feminines in *-ess*, and their corresponding Masculines. The minor details are of less importance.

§ 450. *Duch-ess*, *count-ess*, *baron-ess*, *peer-ess*, *poet-ess*, *lion-ess*—Here *-ess* is attached, at once, to the main word, and the idea is that of a state, or condition, rather than action.

Empress.—Here one of the *r*'s in *Emper-or* is omitted. *Emperor* itself, however, is an anomalous word. The Latin is *Imperator*. Has the *-t* been lost? Or is the word an improper formation from *empire*? This is a point of French, rather than English, philology. Meanwhile, *Imperatrice* is direct from *Imperatrix*.

§ 451. The masculine, in respect to *form*, is not always the

correlative of the Feminine—thus *Marquis* will not give *Marchioness*, which comes from the Low Latin *Marchio*.

§ 452 In *seam-str-ess* and *song-str-ess* we find instances of hybridism, and something more. At present, however, it is enough to say that they are treated according to the analogy of *master* and *mistress*.

§ 453. Individually, I consider that hybridism is a *malum per se*, and that it ought to be discouraged; though, at the same time, I must admit that it is, sometimes, all but necessary, and also that some hybrids are better than others. When this is the case there is generally some combination of sounds which makes the word look more unilingual than it really is. In *wit-ticism* (for instance) we have so close a parallel to *criticism* that the same analogy *appears* to apply to both. The classical scholar knows that it does not. He also knows that *w* is an impossible initial in a Greek word. Still, the word is better than many others. Again, let an English Verb end in *-t*. Let *-er* be added. Let a Feminine in *-ess* be required. The result will be a regular form in *-tress*. Hence, such a word as *waitress* (though beginning with *w*) is better than *foress*, or *sheepess*.

§ 454. Add *-et* to *lance*, and the result is *lanc-et*=*small lance*—a legitimate form, because both the root and the affix are French. Add *-et* to *sword*, and the result (*sword-et*=*little sword*), is a specimen of hybridity. Still there are many of these hybrid words which keep their ground, especially when the *-et* is preceded by *l*, as in *streamlet*.

Words like *penetra-ble* and *penetra-bility* are not only possible, but actual Latin words. So are *possible* and *possibility*. So are *legible* and *legibility*. But *readable* and *bearable*, with their opposites, *un-readable* and *un-bearable*, are hybrid, and (to say the least) exceptionable.

The terminations *-ice*, *-ist*, and *-ism*, are Greek, and in words like *ostracize* and *ostracism* they find a fit and proper place. In words of *English* origin they are exceptionable.

§ 455. Individually (to repeat what has been already stated), I consider that hybridism is a *malum per se*. It is often difficult, however, to avoid it. Many scientific terms err in this respect: exhibiting the heterogeneous juxtaposition of more than one language. Nor is this, in all cases, an accident. Occasionally it occurs through inadvertency. occasionally, however, it is defended. In a few cases it is the lesser of two evils. It is least blameworthy in words like the ones just quoted; words

ending in *-ize* It would be difficult to dispense with such words as *moralize*, *civilize*, and some others. however much the former part may be Latin, and however much the latter part may be Greek. Again—to words like *botanic*, where the *-ic* (like the *botan-*) is Greek, we may add the Latin *-al*. As such a word was possible in the Lower Empire, where such words as *πρωτονοτάριος* were common, we may call these (after the fashion of the architects) Byzantine formations. Thus, however, is only naming our tools. The mixture remains the same. At the same time one of the conditions required in the introduction of new words is complied with. There exists a language in which they are possible. Generally, however, the actual occurrence of the *whole* word is impossible. Part comes from Language A. part from Language B: whilst in Language C, they are tacked together—sometimes (as in words like *botanic-al-ly*, with additions.

§ 456. A change of accent converts a Noun into a Verb
Walker has referred this to the action of the Participle.

<i>Substantive</i>	<i>Verb</i>	<i>Participle</i>
A'bstract	abstia'ct	abstia'cting
A'ccent	accé'nt	accé'nting
A'fix	affix	affixing
A'ugment	augmé'nt	augmé'nting
Collé'gue	collé'gue	collé'guing
Compact	compact	compacting
Compound	compoun'd	compoun'ding
Cómpress	compré'ss	compré'ssing
Conciete	concié'te	concré'ting
Conflict	conflict	conflicting
Cónserve	consér've	consér'ving
Cónsort	conso'rt	consó'rting
Cóntrast	contra'st	contra'sting
Cónverse	convé'rse	convé'rsing
Conveit	convé'it	convé'iting
Déseit	desé'it	desé'rting
Déscant	descá'nt	descá'nting
Digest	digé'st	digé'sting
E'ssay	essay	essá'ying
E'xtract	extia'ct	extrá'cting
Fé'ment	fermé'nt	fermé'nting
Fré'quent	frequé'nt	fiequé'nting
I'mport	impó'rt	impó'i'ting
I'ncense	insén'se	insénsing
I'nsult	insú'lt	insú'ltang
O'bject	objé'ct	objé'cting
Pé'rfume	peifú'me	peifú'ming

<i>Substantive</i>	<i>Verb</i>	<i>Participle</i>
Permit	permit	permitting
Prefix	prefix	prefixing
Premise	promise	promising
Presage	presage	presaging
Present	présent	presenting
Produce	produce	producing
Project	project	projecting
Protest	protest	protesting
Rébel	rebel	rebellng
Récord	record	recording
Refuse	refuse	refusing
Subject	subject	subjecting
Survey	survey	surveying
Torment	torment	tormenting
Transfer	transfer	transferring
Transport	transport	transporting

None of these words are of English origin

CHAPTER III

DIMINUTIVES

§ 457 TAKING the English and Scotch together, our Diminutives are numerous. Taking the English alone they are few. The first that come under notice are—

Forms in -ck—Common in Scotch; as *lussock*, *ladlock*, *wifock*, *playock* (*plaything*), *bittock*, *haddock*, *sillock* (*fry of the coal fish*), with many others. In English (a) current—*bullock*, *hillock*, *buttock*; (b) archaic—*paddock* (*toad*); *mammock* (*fragment*); (c) provincial—*emmock* (*emmet*), *dunnock* (*hedge-sparrow*), *ruddock* (*robin-red-breast*).

Forms in -ick.—These are from the fuller forms in *-ock*, as *luddick*, *lassick*, *riddick* (*ruddock*), *sillick* (*sillock*), *emnick* (*emmock*).

To proceed the older form of *apricot* is *abricock*. The older form of *brittle* is *brickle* (from *break*). With these preliminaries we may consider—

1 *Emmet* = *ant*. Compare *emmock* and *emnick*, as given above

2 *Gobbet* = *piece, mouth-full*. In Scotch, *guppyock*.

3. *Mammet*, same as *mammock*.

4. *Gimlet*.—In Scotch, *gemlick*.

The evidence that the *-t* in these words represents *-k* is satisfactory. Professor Key, from whose valuable paper the list (along with numerous other details) is taken, adds *cricket*, *hornet*, *limpet*, *locket*, *mallet*, *packet*, *pocket*, *sippit*, *smicket* (from *smock*), *tippet*, *wewet* (Somersetshire for *spider's web*), *ballot*, *spigot*. Here, however, the origin of the *-t* is uncertain. The local term *fitchet* = *polecat* has a better claim, inasmuch as there is another form *fitchew*, in which the origin of the *w* out of a *k* is nearly certain. *Brisket* and *maggot* are transpositions from *bristek* (from *breast*), and the A. S. *maðu* where a *k* or *g* precedes (as in *smock*)

Form in -ing.—*lord-ing*, *bird-ing*

§ 458 *Form in -ie*—Scotch—*wifie*, *dudlie*, *lassie*, *lumbie*, *boatie* English—*daddy*, *baby*.

Double Derivatives—Forms of which the basis is *k*

K + ie—Scotch—*Lassockie*, *lassickie*, *wifockie*

K + in.—This gives us the termination *-kin*, the commonest of our Diminutives, though by no means general. The following list is from a paper on English Diminutives in the *Philological Museum* (vol 1 pp 679-686) *Mannikin*, *lambkin*, *pipkin* (= *little pipe*) *Ger-kin* is from the root of *gourd* rather than from *gourd* itself, German, *gurke*, Norse, *gurka*.

Jerkin = *frock* In Dutch *jurk*

Pumpkin—Dutch, *pomp*. Obsolete in English.

Griskin = *Little pig* *Gris* or *grice*. Obsolete

Bumpkin.—Root *b-m*, Dutch *boom* = *tree*, *beam*, in German *baum* = *tree*, in English *beam* (generally = *the trabs*, but preserved in *horn-beam*, with the power of *arbor*) The notion of *woodiness*, connected with stupidity, or extreme simplicity, is shown in the word *blockhead*

Firkin = *Little fourth* = Latin *quadrantulus*.

Lastly, we have in *lad-i-l-in*, *munni-k-in*, the combination *i + k + n*.

§ 459 *Form with -l + ing*—*Bant-l-ing*, *dar-l-ing*, *chitter-l-ing*, *duck-l-ing*, *first-l-ing*, *fond-l-ing*, *found-l-ing*, *kit-l-ing*, *nest-l-ing*, *star-l-ing* (*stare*), *sap-l-ing*, *seed-l-ing*, *strip-l-ing*, *suck-l-ing*, *wit-l-ing*, *year-l-ing*, and a few others. In *change-l-ing* and *nurse-l-ing*, the root is other than English. In *hire-l-ing*, *lord-l-ing*, and *wit-l-ing*, the idea of diminution is accompanied by that of contempt.

Form in l + ock.—In Professor Key's list I find, from Jamie-

son, and (as such) Scotch—*hump-l-ock* = *a small heap*, *knub-l-ock* = *a little knob*

The combination *let* = *l + et*.—Here the *-l-* is German—common in the Swiss and Bavarian forms of speech—whilst the *-t-* is either English or French, as the case may be. When English, it is *-t* in *emmet*, i. e. *a t = k*, when French, the *-t* in *lancet*. When the latter, it gives us an instance of hybridism. In *gim-let* the affix seems to be English. In *ham-let*, *stream-let*, and *ring-let*, it is, probably, French.

§ 460 The combination *rel* = *r + el*. The analysis of *cockrel* (*cockerel*) and *pickrel* is *cock-er-el* and *pick-er-el*; but as the words *cocker* and *piker* have no independent existence, it is an unsatisfactory one. The nearest approach to a Diminutive of the kind is *fresher* = *young frog*, the A. S. and O. E. forms for *frog* having been *frox* and *frosch* = German *frosch*.

§ 461. Form in *-l*.—The substantives of this class fall into two sections.

a. Words which, though substantival in meaning, may be verbs in origin, in which case the *l* is the *l* in *drubb-le*, *trick-le*, &c. *Sparkle*, *speckle*, we can say either *it sparkles*, or *a sparkle*: *the speckled hen*, or *the hen with speckles*. Perhaps, *prickle* is in the same category, though it more probably belongs to the next section.

b. Words which are in origin, as well as in import, Substantives—*spittle*, *girdle* (*girth*), *nozzle* (*nose*), *thimble*, *throstle* (*thumb*), *griddle* (*grid-iron*), *gristle*, *kantle* (*small corner*, from *kant* = *corner*), *hurdle* (*Dutch horde*, German *hurde*, English, used by builders, *hording*), *knuckle* (*German, knock* = *bone*), *stubble*, *kernel* (= *little corn*).

Soare = *a deer in its third year*; *sorr-el* = *one in its second*.

Tiercel.—A small hawk, from *tierce*.

In the last edition of the present work, after noticing the forms (like *trumpet*, *lancet*, and *pocket*) in *-et*, and after remarking that they are of French origin, after noticing, too, certain German diminutives (like *origile* = *little eye*, *liedel* = *little song*), and, finally, after bringing forward the word *stream-let*, I state, that "the termination *let*, as in that word, seems to be double, and to consist of the Gothic diminutive *-l-*, and the French diminutive *-t*."—*English Language*. Fourth Edition, vol. ii. p. 147. Instead of *Gothic*, I would now write German.

An elaborate paper of Mr Herbert Coleridge in the *Transactions of the Philological Society*, A.D. 1857, *On Diminutives in "Let,"* has induced me to reconsider this statement.

After remarking that the number of substantives ending in *let* amounts to between seventy and eighty, Mr. Coleridge proceeds to the analysis of them, throwing them into three groups

1. Words where the *l* is part of the root.
- 2 Those where it is the French *-let*
- 3 Those where it is really *l + t*, as in *stream-let*

It is only the last which have been considered here.

CHAPTER IV.

AUGMENTATIVES

§ 462 THE nearest approach to an Augmentative in the German languages is to be found in certain words in *-art* or *-ard*, as *drunkard*, *stink-ard*, *lag-gard*, *cow-ard*, and *bragg-art*

In *wiz-ard* (*witchard*) superiority of size is made the distinctive character of the male, as opposed to the female, *impostor*. and *wizard*, like *gander*, is a word where the masculine form is fuller than the feminine; the general rule being that words like *duch-ess*, *peer-ess*, &c., are derived from *duke*, *peer*, &c. The dealers, however, in witchcraft were chiefly women.

Bastard is not a word of this class; but one from a wholly different source.

Reynard = *fox* is from the proper name *Rwinhart*, *Reynold*, or *Rinaldo*.

Buzzard = the Latin *but-eo*, shows that the *-ard* is non-radical *But-* is, apparently, the *put-*, in *putt-ock*, another name of the *Buteo*.

"Or find the partridge in the puttock's nest"

§ 463. *Swéetheart* with a single accent, and that on the first syllable, is one thing. *Swéet héart* with two accents at par is another. The difference between *two separate words* and a *single word made up of two* has been shown elsewhere; and the only question that now remains is whether *swéetheart* be an ordinary compound, or a derivative, like *upmost* and others, *i. e.* a derivative wearing the garb of a compound. It may be either.

It may=*heart* + *sweet*, just as *bläck bird*=*bird* + *black*, or it may=*sweet* + *art* (as in *bruggart*). In favour of this view is the German *liebhart*, a word with the same meaning. In the *Low-German*, this would be a possible compound; inasmuch as, in *Low-German*, *hart*=*heart*. In *High-German*, however, the word is *herz*—and *herz* can scarcely give such a compound as *liebhart*.

There is another word of this sort which requires notice: *i. e.* *true-love*. Adjective for adjective, *true* is as likely to precede the substantive *love*, as *faithful*, *charming*, &c, or any other word. Moore might as easily have written—

Then fare thee well, mine own true love—

as

Then fare thee well, mine own *dear* love.

though he did not. *True love*, then, like *bläck bird*, is a pair of words. But *true-love* (as in *truelove's knot*) is a compound. Of what? Perhaps of *love* preceded by *true*, in which case it is a word like *bläckbird*. Perhaps of something else. In Danish, *trolove*=*to betroth*, and *troloved*=*a betrothed or engaged person*. Meanwhile *lov*=*law*, and has nothing to do with the tender passion. Upon this Mr. Laing, in his well-known work upon Norway, remarks that the words have no origin in the affections, and that "a man may be a *true love* to his bond of ten pounds, as well as to his sweetheart." He goes further, and holds that the word *love* itself=*amo* has the same legal character in which, however, he is wrong—as may be seen from the German *liebe*, and the Latin *lub-et*. Laying this, however, out of the question, it is clear that, if the first part of this doctrine be right, we have, in *truelove*, not only a curious derivative, but a word of Scandinavian origin. And such I once believed it to be. Where, however, is the evidence of its meaning *an engaged person* in English? Until this be adduced it is better to suspend judgment.

CHAPTER V

PATRONYMICS AND GENTILE NAMES.

§ 464 IN Anglo-Saxon the termination *-ing* is as truly patronymic as *-ids* is in Greek. In the Bible-translation the son of Elisha is called *Elising*. In the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle occur

such genealogies as the following.—*Ida was Eopping, Eoppa Esing, Esa Inging, Inga Angenwiting, Angenwit Alocing, Aloc Beonocing, Beonoc Branding, Brand Bældaging, Bældæg Wōdening, Wōden Friðowulfing, Friðowulf Finning, Finn Godwulfing, Godwulf Geating*—Ida was the son of Eoppa, Eoppa of Esa, Esa of Inga, Inga of Angenwit, Angenwit of Aloc, Aloc of Beonoc, Beonoc of Brand, Brand of Bældag, Bældag of Woden, Woden of Friðowulf, Friðowulf of Finn, Finn of Godwulf, Godwulf of Geat—In Greek, this would be “Ἰδα ἦν Ἐοππίδης, Ἐοππα Ἡσείδης, Ἡσα Ἰγγείδης, Ἰγγα Ἀγγεφιδείδης, &c In like manner, Edgar *Atheling* means *Edgar of the family of the nobles*

The plurals of these forms in *-ing* have commanded attention from their prominence in the Anglo-Saxon charters, as the names of *places*. Through the *Codex Diplomaticus* we learn that the following districts (along with many others) of which the names now end in the simple singular syllable *ing*, originally, ended in the plural form *-ing-as* Thus—

Barking	in	Essex	was	Beringas
Bocking	—	Essex	—	Boccingas
Ditchling	—	Sussex	—	Dicelingas
Docking	—	Notfolk	—	Doccingas
Malling	—	Kent	—	Mallingas
Reading	—	Beiks	—	Readingas
Tarring	—	Sussex	—	Terungas

These, with others, are (as has been stated) names which actually occur in A S documents. In the following, the forms in *as* are inferred from the present names.

Balking	in	Essex from a hypothetical	Baleingas
Bairling	—	Essex	Beairlingas.
Bairming	—	Kent	Beairmingas
Basing	—	Hants	Basingas
Beltng	—	Kent	Beltngas
Billing	—	Norths, &c	Billingas
Buling	—	Northumberland	Bulingas
Brading	—	Hants	Bradingas.

and so on throughout the alphabet. In a few cases, however, the *as*, in the form *s*, is retained at the present time, *e. g.* :—

Bairings	in	Lincolnshire
Bealings	—	Suffolk.
Hastings	—	Sussex
Lallings	—	Yorkshire

Can these plurals, real and hypothetical, be the names of men and women who occupied certain districts rather than the names of the districts themselves? Yes. The nature of the word *Wiles** may be seen above; but it is only one word out of many, the transfer of the name of the inhabitants to the land inhabited being common both in A. S. and Old English. Again, in Lithuanic—

Szvedai,	<i>Swedes</i>	from Szvedas,	a <i>Suede</i>	= <i>Sweden</i>
Prūsai,	<i>Prussians</i>	— Prūsas,	a <i>Prussian</i>	= <i>Prussia</i>
Lénkai,	<i>Poles</i>	— Lenkas,	a <i>Pole</i>	= <i>Poland</i>

In *Cornwall* the form is singular, as is also the simple form in the following passage :—

“pis taping com him how *Wile* him betrayed
 peifor is Gascoyn left and er at werie delayed”

ROBERT OF BOURNE, 263

The older name for England is *Engle*=*Angli*, rather than *Anglia*

“The Denes adde the maystre, tho al was ydo,
 And by *Est Angle* and Lyndeseye hu wende woip atte laste,
 And so hamward al by Kent and slow and bainde vaste”

ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER, 160

To proceed. *Norfolk* and *Suffolk* are the *people* (*folk*) of the North and South, the use of *f-lk* as the part of a local name being particularly common in the North

Sus-sex, and *Ess-ax* are the South Saxons, and the East Saxons rather than South, or East, Saxony.

Somer-set, and *Dor-set* are words of the same kind; meaning *Somer-settlers* and *Dor-settlers*—the A. S. form having been *setta*=*incola*, with a plural both in *-as* and *-an*. In the *Codex Diplomaticus* we have—

Beonotsetan	in	Worcestershne	Mósetan	in	Worcestershne
Biadsetan	—	ditto	Wieococsetan	—	Shropshne
Gimsetan	—	ditto	Cægsetan	—	Kent
Incsetan	—	ditto	Ciudsetan	—	Wilts

§ 465. The total number of different names, either real or inferred, which end in *-ing*, is, as Mr Kemble writes, 627; but,

* Our *wall-nuts* have nothing to do with *walls*. They are *foreign nuts*, *Welsh nuts*, or *nuces Gallicæ*

as several of them are repeated in different counties, the sum total amount to 1329, distributed thus:—

Yorkshire	127	Beaks	22
Norfolk	97	Nottingham	22
Lincolnshire	76	Cambridge	21
Sussex	68	Dorset	21
Kent	60	Stafford	19
Suffolk	56	Durham	19
Northumberland	48	Leicester	19
Essex	48	Surrey	18
Gloster	46	Bucks	17
Somerset	45	Hunts	16
Northampton .	35	Derby	14
Salop	34	Worcester	13
Hants	33	Middlesex	12
Warwick	31	Hertford	10
Oxford	31	Cumberland	6
Lancashire	26	Rutland	4
Wilts	25	Westmoreland	2
Cheshire	25	Cornwall	2
Devon	24	Monmouth	0
Bedford	22		

§ 466 In respect to the names like *Tarring*, &c, which stand alone, or without the additions of *-wic*, *-ham*, *-worth*, *-borough*, and the like, their distribution is as follows:—

Kent	25	Hunts	3
Norfolk	24	Northumberland	3
Sussex	24	Notts	3
Essex	21	Cambridge	2
Suffolk	15	Derby	2
York	13	Dorset	2
Lincoln	7	Gloucester	2
Southampton	6	Oxon	2
Beaks	5	Bucks	1
Surrey	5	Devon	1
Beds	4	Salop	1
Norths	4	Leicester	1
Lancashire	4	Somerset	1
Middlesex	4	Warwick	1
Herts	3	Wilts	1

§ 467. Supposing these words to be declined like *cyning* = *king*, their possessive case would be, in the singular number, (*say*) *Malling-es*, in the plural, *Malling-a*. If so, the *town* of *Malling*, or, of a *Malling* would be *Mallingestūn*, the *town* of the *Mallings* being *Mallingatūn*. But what would *Mallington*

be? This question is anything but unimportant. In the *Codex Diplomaticus* (No. 179), Mr Kemble finds an *Æthelwulfing land*, also (No. 195) a *Folwining land*, also (*ibid.*), a *Wynhearding land*, upon which he remarks that this means the land of an *Æthelwulf*, a *Folwine*, and a *Wynheard*, rather than that of a family called *Æthelwulfings*, a family called *Folwinings*, or a family called *Wynheardings*. From this, he argues that the termination *-ing* is, by no means, sufficient, in all cases, to make a patronymic, but that, on the contrary, it sometimes denotes a genitive, or possessive, case—*Æthelwulfing land* being exactly equivalent to *Æthelwulfes land*. In like manner Woolbedington, Wool Lavington, and Barlavington are, respectively, *Wulfbedingtūn*, *Wulfāfingtūn*, and *Beórlāfingtūn*, or the towns (*tūnas*) of Wulfbæd, Wulfāf, and Beórlaf.—See *Saxons in England*, vol. i. p. 60, note.

The view that *-ing* is virtually a genitive case, is further developed in a paper by the same author in the *Philological Transactions* (vol. iv.) Objected to by Mr Watts, who holds that the form is adjectival rather than genitive, this view has been endorsed by Professor Key.

§ 468 The notion that *-ing* is the sign of a genitive case in the way that *-s* is, I hold to be untenable, and I doubt whether the author meant to say that it was so. Wallis calls all our forms in *-s* Adjectives, on the strength of the import of a *good hat* and a *man's hat*, being, as far as the relations of *good* and *man's* to *hat* are concerned, the same. Yet, he would never have said that *man's* was in the same category with *bonus*, or *bonus* in the same category as *hominis*, except in a very general way. That the ideas expressed by the words patronymic and genitive are allied no one doubts—and, it seems to me, that Mr Kemble meant little more than this. Without laying undue stress upon the paucity of examples, and arguing that a final *-a*, the sign of the genitive plural, may have been omitted by either the speaker or the copyist, we may fairly say that the power under notice is exceptional. If so, all that can be said is, that in a few instances such words as *Æthelwulfing land* = either *terra Æthelwulfi*, or *terra Æthelwulfiana*. For making the forms *exclusively* genitive, I see as few reasons as I see for making them *exclusively* adjectival. They are neither one nor the other exactly; any more than *Pyramides* is *exactly* either *Pyramni* or *Pyramneius*.

§ 469 So much for the purely etymological question. The

historical aspect of the question is, at least, of equal interest. If phrases like *Wulfláfiŋglán* = *Wulflaf's town*, we have a great number of large places founded by single individuals. I do not say that such is not the case. In many cases—especially in the Danish parts of England—the undeniable sign of the genitive case (-s) comes between a personal proper name and a local common one, *e. g.* in *Ingoldsby, Ormskirk, &c.* = *Ingiall's town, Orm's Church, &c.* Upon the whole, however, I favour the inference suggested by the numerous plural forms in *-ingas*, and believe that the ordinary Patronymic power is the one which best suits the form. The question, however, is far too complicated for a work like the present

CHAPTER VI.

ABSTRACTS — FORMS IN *-TH* — FORMS IN *-NESS*

§ 470 ABSTRACTS are of two kinds: (*a*) Determinate, and (*b*) Indeterminate

§ 471 The Determinate Abstracts denote qualities *to the exclusion of their opposites*. They fall into two divisions; in the first of which the Adjective is simple; in the second of which it is either Derivative or Compound.

Adjective Simple — Words like *long, broad, high, deep, strong, hot*, to which *short, narrow, low, shallow, weak, cold* stand in contrast, run in pairs, as—*high, low; broad, narrow, &c.* In these each adjective can take the termination *-ness*; in other words, we can say both *long-ness* and *short-ness, broad-ness* and *narrow-ness, high-ness* and *low-ness, deep-ness* and *shallow-ness, strong-ness* and *weak-ness, hot-ness* and *cold-ness*—at least, good authorities have done so. At the same time, it is clear that there is a difference; this difference being in favour of the more *negative* term of the two. Thus.—

Short-ness	is	commoner	than	Longness
Narrow-ness	—	—		Broadness
Low-ness	—	—		High-ness
Shallow-ness	—	—		Deep-ness
Weak-ness	—	—		Strong-ness
Cold-ness	—	—		Hot-ness

If there be any exception to this statement it lies with the

word *highness*, which is, perhaps, commoner than *lowness*. It should, however, be remembered that it has two meanings—being used as a title of honour, as *your Royal Highness*. On the other hand, *longness* and *strongness* are words which a very fastidious writer would hesitate about using. And, unless he gave them their right meaning, he would do well in abstaining from them.

Second division.—Adjective Derived (a) Derivative element -y—Happi-ness, un-happiness, naughti-ness

(b) Derivative element *-ish*—*slugg-ish-ness, peev-ish-ness.*

(c) Participial forms in *-ed*—*content ed-ness.*

§ 472. *Adjective Compound* — (a) Words in *-ly* = *like* *world-li-ness, man-li-ness.*

(b) Words in *-ful*—*truth-ful-ness*

(c) Words in *-less*—*ruth-less-ness, care-less-ness.*

§ 473. The Indeterminate Abstracts denote qualities, but *without excluding their opposites*. Thus, we may talk of *the length of a very short walk—the height of a low chair—the depth of a shallow stream*, and the like. In all these cases we merely mean that the *walk*, the *chair*, and the *water* have a certain amount of extension in a certain direction. Whether this be little or much is another matter. We mention it generally. If we wished to draw attention to the fact of the three qualities being *below* the average we should say *short-ness, low-ness, and shallow-ness.*

§ 474. The Indeterminate Abstracts, in the typical form, are formed from Adjectives by the addition of *-th*. As this, however, is a simple consonant, it creates no new syllable. As it attaches itself directly to the Adjective (the Adjective itself generally ending in a consonant) it creates some slight euphonic modifications. Thus:—

In *strong* and *long* the vowel changes, after the manner of the *o* in *old* and *elder*, and the result is *streng-th, leng-th.*

So it does in *bread*, giving *bread-th*. Here the affinity between the sounds of *-d* and *-th* give us a near approach of a true reduplication of a consonant.

In *height*, the power of the *h* is often overlooked, and the word is sounded *height*.

In *depth* the opposite often occurs, and many say *depth*, on the principle that, in the Greek language, gives us such forms as *τυφθεις*.

With the forms in *-th*, the phenomenon of § 471 is reversed,

and words like *short-th*, *narrow-th*, *loss-th*, *cold-th*, are either rare or non-existent. in other words, the *negative* terms take the form in *-ness*

CHAPTER VII.

ON CERTAIN FORMS IN *-ER* —DEGREES OF COMPARISON.— DEFECT AND COMPLEMENT.

§ 475. PREPARATORY to the consideration of the degrees of comparison, we must attend to certain phenomena connected with the forms in *-er*; an ending which is common to (1) certain pronouns, as *ei-th-er*, *n-ei-th-er*, *whe-th-er*, *o-th-er*; (2) certain prepositions and adverbs, as *ov-er*, *und-er*, *af-t-er*, (3) adjectives of the comparative degree, as *wis-er*, *strong-er*, *bett-er*, &c; (4) adjectives, with the form of the comparative, but the power of the positive degree, as *upp-er*, *und-er*, *inn-er*, *out-er*, *hind-er*. What is the idea common to all these words? Bopp, who has best generalized the view of the form, considers the fundamental idea to be that of *duality*. In the comparative degree we have a relation between one object and *some* other object like it, or a relation between two single elements of comparison: as *A is wiser than B*. In the superlative degree we have a relation between one object and *all* others like it, or a relation between one single and one complex element of comparison: *A is wiser than B, C, D, &c.* Over and above, however, the idea of simple comparison, there is that of (1) contrariety; as in *inner*, *outer*, *under*, *upper*, *over*; and (2) choice in the way of an alternative, as *either*, *neither*, *other*, and *whether*, a word which, as a pronoun, is nearly obsolete. No one at present says *whether of the two will you have*, or *whether of the two is this?* but, on the contrary, *which of the two*, &c. In Lithuanic, the converse takes place, and *whether* (at least its equivalent *katras*) applies to more than two, e. g. :—

Trīs bernýczai szeno pióve,
Katás búsit máno melas?
Katás plauksit vamikelio?

i e Three young men mow hay,
Whether (which) will be my love?
Whether (which) will swim for the wreath?

The word, as is suggested by this quotation, is an old one ; being the Latin *uter* (*c-uter*, whence *n-euler* = *n-either*) and the Greek *κότερος* (= *πότερος*)

The notice of the extent to which the notion of comparison is connected with that of duality is not the only preliminary to the consideration of what are called the positive, comparative, and superlative degrees of adjectives and adverbs. A distinction, important elsewhere, is pre-eminently important here. This is *the distinction between a sequence in logic and a sequence in etymology*. The ideas or notions of *thou, thy, thee*, are ideas between which there is a metaphysical or logical connection. The train of such ideas may be said to form a sequence, and such a sequence may be called a logical one. The forms *thou, thy, thee*, are forms or words between which there is a formal or an etymological connection. A train of such words may be called a sequence, and such a sequence may be called an etymological one. In the case of *thou, thy, thee*, the etymological sequence tallies with the logical one. In the case of *I, my, me*, the etymological sequence does *not* tally (or tallies imperfectly) with the logical one. Applying this to words like *good, better, &c.*, we see at once, that, whilst some are deficient in their Comparative and Superlative, others are deficient in their Positive, forms. The *defective* character, however, of this class of words is not all. It must be remarked that the forms which one word wants are made good by those which another possesses. Hence, there is not only *defect*, but what may be called *complement*, also. The word *good* fills up what was wanting to the forms *better* and *best*.

That the phenomena of defect and complement will meet us again when we reach the pronouns is suggested by the example just given. It will meet us elsewhere besides. It will meet us most especially amongst the verbs.

§ 476. *Formation of the Comparative Degree—Details—* The comparative is formed from the positive by adding *-er*, as *cold, rich, dry*—*cold-er, rich-er, dry-er*. This *-r* was originally *-s*

§ 477. In *worse* we may suppose that there is a remnant of this: the Mæso-Gothic form being *váirsiza*; in Old High-German, *wirsiro*; Middle High-German, *wirser*; Old Saxon, *wirso*; Anglo-Saxon, *vyrsa*, Old Norse, *verri*; Danish, *værre*; and Swedish, *varre*.

Near, nearer.—A S *neah* comparative, *nearre, near, nyr*;

superlative, *nyhst, nehst* Observe, the absence of the *-r*. This shows that the English positive *near* is the Anglo-Saxon comparative *neurre*, and that in the secondary comparative *neurer*, we have an excess of expression. In the vulgarism *betterer* for *better*, and in the antiquated forms *worser* for *worse*, and *lesser* for *less*, we have an excess of expression. In the Old High-German we have the forms *betserôro, mērôro, ērereru* = *better, more, ere*. It may be, however, that the *r* in *near* is a mere point of orthography, and that it is not pronounced, just as *father* and *farther* are, for the most part, pronounced alike.

Farther—Anglo-Saxon, *feor, fyrr, fyrrer*. The *th* seems euphonic, inserted by the same process that gives the *δ* in *ἄνδρος*.

Further—Confounded with *farther*, although in reality from a different word, *fore*. Old High-German, *furdîr*; New High-German, *der vordere*; Anglo-Saxon, *fyrðre*.

CHAPTER VIII.

FORMATION OF THE SUPERLATIVE DEGREE.—DETAILS.

§ 478. THE superlative degree is formed from the positive by the addition of the syllable *-est*; as *dark, dark-est, cold, cold-est; rich, rich-est; dry, dry-est; low, low-est*.

§ 479. But it may also be formed from the comparative by changing the *r* of the comparative into *s*, and adding *t*; as *dark-er, dark-es, dark-es-t; cold-er, cold-es, cold-es-t, rich-er, rich-es, rich-es-t; dry-er, dry-es, dry-es-t, low-er, low-es, low-es-t*.

To understand the reason why this complex and apparently unnecessary process has been noticed, we must remember what has been said concerning the Moeso-Gothic language, and the extent to which it preserves the *older* forms of the Gothic inflections; and, also, that the Moeso-Gothic Comparative was not formed in *r*, but in *s*. *Ald-iza, bat-iza, sut-iza*, were the original forms of what became in Old High-German *alt-iro, bet-iro, suat-siro*, and in English, *old-er, bett-er, sweet-er*. This is one fact. Another is, that *whilst many languages have a Comparative without a Superlative degree, few or none have a Superlative without a Comparative*. Hence, in the case of a Super-

lative in *-st*, two views may be taken. According to the one, it is the Positive with the addition of *st*; according to the other, it is the old Comparative in *-s*, with the addition only of *t*. Now, Grimm, and others, lay down as a rule, that the Superlative is formed, not *directly* from the *Positive*, but *indirectly* through the *Comparative*.

§ 480 With the exception of *worse* and *less*, all the English Comparatives end in *r*; yet no Superlative ends in *rt*, the form being, not *wise*, *wiser*, *wisest*, but *wise*, *wiser*, *wisest*. This fact, without invalidating the notion just laid down, gives additional importance to the Comparative forms in *s*; since it is from these, *before* they changed to *r*, that we must suppose the Superlatives to have been derived. This theory being admitted, we can, by approximation, determine the date of the Superlative degree. It was introduced into the languages allied to the English, *after* the establishment of the Comparative and *before* the change of *s* into *r*.

§ 481. Of the English superlatives, the ones that demand a detailed examination, are those that are generally despatched without difficulty, viz the words in *most*, such as *midmost*, *foremost*, &c. The current view is that they are compound words, formed from simple ones, by the addition of the superlative term *most*. Grimm's view is opposed to this. In appreciating this, we must bear in mind the phenomena of *excess of expression*, at the same time we must not depart from the current theory without duly considering that we have in Icelandic the forms *nærmeir*, *fjærmeir*, &c. *nearer* and *farther*, most unequivocally compounded of *near + more* and of *far + more*. The A. S. gives us the following forms.—

Anglo-Saxon	English.	Anglo-Saxon	English
innema	inmost	forma	foremost
ûtema	outmost	æftema	aftermost
siðema	latest	ufema	utmost
lætema	latest	hundema	hundmost
mðema	nethermost	midema	midmost

Besides these, there are in the other allied languages, words like *fruma* = *first*, *aftuma* = *last*, *miduma* = *middle*. These words show at once, that, as far as they are concerned, the *m* which appears in the last syllable of each has nothing to do with the word *most*. On the contrary, there was formed, in Anglo-Saxon, a regular superlative from them by the addition of *st*;

as *æfte-m-est*, *fyr-m-est*, *læte-m-est*, *six-m-est*, *yfe-m-est*, *ute-m-est*. And, hence, in the present English, the different parts of the syllable *most* (in words like *upmost*), come from different quarters. The *m* is the *m* in the Anglo-Saxon words *innema*, &c ; whilst the *-st* is the common sign of the superlative. In separating, then, such words as *midmost* into its component parts, we should write—

mid-m-ost	not	mid-most	fore-m-ost	not	foie-most
ut-m-ost	—	ut-most	in-m-ost	—	in-most
up-m-ost	—	up-most	hind-m-ost	—	hind-most

In certain words the syllable *m-ost* is added to a word already ending in *er*, that is, to a word already marked with the sign of the comparative degree.

ne-thei-most	hin-dei-most
utt-ei-most	out-ei-most
upp-ei-most	mn-ei-most

Here, the addition is *most*, as a simple word, and the result is a *Compound*—not a *Derivative*.

Having accounted for the *m* in the words just mentioned, we can account for the *m* in the word *former*. The superlative was *forma*, and *former* was a comparative, cataclrestically, derived from it.

CHAPTER IX

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

§ 482 ADVERBS, like adjectives, take degrees of comparison, though not to the same extent. In *the sun shines bright*, the word *bright* means *brightly*; and although the use of the latter word would have been the more elegant, the expression is not ungrammatical.

The sun shines to-day brighter than it did yesterday, and to-morrow it will shine brightest—Here also the sense is adverbial.

In words like *oftener* and *seldomer* the adverbial comparison is beyond doubt.

§ 483. Adverbs, then, take the degrees of comparison. and not only do they do this, but the history of their forms is important. In *Anglo-Saxon* there were *two* forms; one in *-re*

and *-este*, the other in *-or* and *-ost*. Now the first of these was the form taken by adjectives, as *se scearpre sweord* = *the sharper sword*, and *se scearpeste sweord* = *the sharpest sword*: the second, the form taken by adverbs; as, *se sweord scyrð scearpor* = *the sword cuts sharper*, and *se sweord scyrð scearpost* = *the sword cuts sharpest*.

More than this—the adverbial form had a tendency to make the preceding vowel full the adjectival, a tendency to make it small. Thus—

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>	
Lang,	Lengie,	Lengest,	<i>Long</i>
Strang,	Stiengre,	Stiengest,	<i>Strong</i>
Geong,	Gyngie,	Gyngest,	<i>Young</i>
Sceort,	Scytie,	Scyttest,	<i>Short</i>
Heah,	Hyrie,	Hyhst,	<i>High</i>
Eald,	Yldie,	Yldest,	<i>Old</i>

Of this change, the word last quoted is a still-existing specimen, as *old*, *elder*, and *older*, *eldest*, and *oldest*. A more important word is *rather* in which we pronounce the *a* like the *a* in *father*, or full. Nevertheless, the positive form is small, the *a* being pronounced as the *a* in *fate*, or *small*. The word itself means *quick*, *easy* = the classical root *ῥαδ-* in *ῥαδιος*. What we do *quickly* and *willingly* we do *by preference*. If the word *rather* were an adjective, the vowel of the comparative would be sounded as the *a* in *fate*. As it is, however, it is adverbial, and as such is properly sounded full

CHAPTER X.

THE ORDINALS

§ 484. THE Ordinals are derived from the Cardinals. There is, however, no *etymological* connection between either *one* and *first*, or *two* and *second*. With the others the ordinal form is either *th* or a modification of it. Thus—

<i>Cardinal</i>		<i>Ordinal</i>
Three	.	Thi- <i>d</i>
Four	.	Fou- <i>th</i>
Five	.	Fif- <i>th</i>
Six	.	Six- <i>th</i>
Eight	.	Eigh- <i>th</i> .

And so on.

§ 485. Is there any connection between the Ordinals of Numerals and the Superlatives of Adjectives? It is an undoubted fact that more than one form is common to certain Superlatives, and to certain Ordinals. Thus the *-m-* in *for-m-er*, of which the Anglo-Saxon is *for-m-a*, and which is, in Latin, *pri-m-us*, and, in Lithuanic, *pir-m-as*, is, without doubt, the *-m-* in *infi-m-us*, *exti-m-us*, &c. = *lowest, outermost*, &c.; all being superlatives. It is also an undoubted fact that the *-t-* in *sex-t-us* (*sixth*) is the *-t-* in *πρω-τ-os*, and the *-tim-* in *sep-tim-us*, the *-tim-* of *ex-tim-us*. It is impossible to see these coincidences without admitting the possibility of such identifications. Those, however, who see this are asked to see more. They are asked to see, in the Greek form *-τατ-* in *φιλ-τατ-os*, an original *-ταμτ-* in which both the *-τ-* and *-μ-* once existed. They are then asked to see, in a word like *πρω-τ-os*, a form in which *-μ-* is lost, but the *-τ-* preserved. They are then asked to see in *infi-mus*, a form where the *-t-* is preserved, but without the *-μ-*.

§ 486 All this passes within the region of the Superlative Degree, and without any hypothesis as to the affinity between the ideas of Superlativity and Ordinality. But what if the latter be superadded? In this case, the Ordinals are dealt with as Superlatives, and, *mutatis mutandis*, the reasoning is repeated. The *-tim-* in *sep-tim-us* is the full, perfect, and typical form; the *-t-* in *quar-t-us*, the *-t-* minus *m-*. The *-ni-* in *deci-m-us* is the *-m-* minus *t-*: all this within the compass of one language. But this is not all, the Latin for 7 is *septem*, the Greek, *ἑπτα*. The Norse for 7 is *sjuu*. But, in the English, in *seven*, the *-n-* (being the *-m-* of the ordinal) is reflected back (so to say) on the cardinal. This may, or may not, be the case. But there is more behind. The Greek for 10 is *δεκα*, wherein, not only the *-t-* but the *-m-* is lost also, as may be seen from *dec-em*. But the English for 10 is *ten*; in Moeso-Gothic *taihun*. Here the *-h-* = *-k-* (in *δεκα*), and *-c-* (in *decem*), whilst the *-n-* = *-m-* in *septi-m-us* = *-m-* in *infi-m-us* = *-m-* in *pri-m-us* = *-m-* of the Superlative Degree = *-m-* of ordinality—this *-m-* of ordinality being reflected on the Superlative. The same applies to *seven* and *nine*. The *-n-* is not radical, as is inferred from *sjuu*, and *ἑννεα*. and it is ordinal, as is inferred from *septi-m-us*, and *novi-m-us* = *novus*. All this should be known, because it is found in the writings of authoritative grammarians. But is it true? I cannot say. It explains so much that I am slow to believe it wholly wrong.

At the same time the patent and ostensible argument in favour of it is unsatisfactory. To treat *first* as the ordinal of *two*, is like treating *I* as the nominative of *me*. They are not only two words but the names for two different ideas. *First* is a superlative all the world over. It is at the most honourable end of a series, or order; and, as such, Ordinal. But this order, in which it is so superlative, is not represented by *one*, but by *second*, *third*, *fourth*, and so on. In respect to these it is both ordinal and superlative. What it is to *one* is another matter. It is certainly *not* its superlative.

To proceed. Compare *second* with *two*, and what is the correlation? None. The true correlative to *second* is *first*; and as *second* is from the Latin *secundus*, to which the root is the *sec-* in *seq-uor*, the two together mean, there or thereabouts, the *preceding* and the *following*. If any degree of comparison comes in here, it is the *comparative*; and that this *does* come in is shown in those languages which, like the Danish, use *anden* = *other* for *second*.

Notwithstanding all this, it is possible that, in words like *third*, *fourth*, &c., some idea of superlativeness may exist, though not to the extent to which it exists in *first*. When we say the *fifth*, or the *sixth*, we use the definite article just as we do when we say *the best*, or *the worst*. We also imply that a number of objects is spoken about, inasmuch as *the fifth* implies the *fourth*, *third*, *second* and *first* which preceded it—the highest number being at the head of the series. In this there are the elements of ordinality of some kind. But is it the ordinality that implies a cardinality? Is it a correlation between *fifth* and *five*? No. The ordinals, from *two*, upwards, are ordinal to *each other*, and not to their so-called cardinals.

CHAPTER XI

EXPRESSION OF DIFFERENCE OF SEX

§ 487. THE chief affix by which the name of a male is converted into that of a female, is, in German *-in*, so that from *freund* = *friend* we get *freund-inn* = *female friend*. It is a termination which is not only German but Sarmatian also. the Lithuanic giving

Bajóras	nobleman	bajor-ene.
Kùmigs	païson	kunig-ene
Kupius	shoemaker	kupiuu-ene
Avýnas	mother's brother	avýu-ene (<i>his wife</i>)
A'silas	ass	asil-ene
Gandias	stork	gandi-ene, &c, &c

This being the case, its absence in English is remarkable. The only word in which it is believed to exist at the present moment is *vixen* = *female fox* = *fuchsinu*, German. I am, however, by no means certain that the word is not of recent introduction. If so, it is in the same predicament as *nungravin* and *landgravin* from *marchgrave*, and is merely a naturalized German word. That the *-ine* in *hero-ine*, from *hero*, has a wholly different origin is manifest; being from the Greek *ἡρωίνη*.

§ 488 Forms in *-ster* were originally the names of Females. The old glossaries give us—

(1)			
Textoi	webba	Citharedus	heapeie
Textiix	webbestie	Citharista	heapestie
(2)			
Cantoi	sangere	Fidicen	fiðelere
Cantiix	sangestrie	Fideina	fiðelestie
Lectoi	rædeie	Saitor	seameie
Lectiix	rædistre	Saitix	seamestie
(3)			
Hec pectiix,	a kempster	Hec siccatiix,	a diyster
— textiix,	a webster	— palmaria,	a biaydster
— pistriix,	a baxter	— salmaria,	a salster
— pandoxatiix,	a brewster	— auxiatiix,	a hukster

On the other hand, such entries as

Hic pistoi, a backstare | Hic textoi, a webster
are very rare.

At present, however, *spinster* is the only representative of what was originally a large class. The words *songstress* and *seamstress*, besides being (as far as concerns the intermixture of languages) in the predicament of *shepherdess*, have a double Derivational element, 1st, *-str*, of Germanic, 2nd, *-ess*, of classical, origin.

§ 489 *Goose, gander*—In the older forms of the word *goose*, such as *χην*, Greek; *unser*, Latin; *guns*, German; as

well as in the derived form *gander*, we have the proofs that, originally, there belonged to the word the sound of the letter *n*. In the forms ὀδούς, ὀδόντος, Greek, *dens, dentis*, Latin; *zahn*, German, *tooth*, English, we find the analogy that accounts for the ejection of the *n*, and the lengthening of the vowel preceding. With respect, however, to the *d* in *gander*, it is not easy to say whether it is inserted in one word or omitted in the other. Neither can we give the precise power of the *-er*. The following forms occur in the different Gothic dialects.—*Gans*, *ganazzo*, Old High-German—*gôs*, *f*; *gandra*, *m*, Anglo-Saxon—*gās*, Icelandic, *f*; *gaus*, Danish, *f*; *gasi*, Icelandic, *m*; *gasse*, Danish, *m*.—*ganser*, *ganserer*, *gansart*, *gander*, and *ganserich*, in different New German dialects. From § 487 we learn that the word under notice is Lithuanic for a *stork*.

§ 490. *Drake*.—The form *ganserich* has just been quoted *Tauberich*, in provincial German, has the same form and the same power. It denotes a *male*—*taube*, in German, signifying a *dove*. Of the termination *-rik* we have a remnant, in English, preserved in the curious word *drake*. To *duck* the word *drake* has no etymological relation whatsoever. It is connected with a word with which it has but one letter in common, viz the Latin *anas*=*a duck*. Of this the root is *anat*-, as seen in the genitive case *anatis*. In Old High-German we find the form *anetrekho*=*a drake*, in provincial New High-German there is *enterich*, and *antrecht*, from whence come the English and Low-German form *drake*.

§ 491. *Peacock, peahen, bridegroom*—In these compounds (as has already been stated), it is not the words *pea* and *bride* that are rendered masculine or feminine by the addition of *cock*, *hen*, and *groom*, but it is the words *cock*, *hen*, and *groom* that are modified by prefixing *pea* and *bride*. They are, however, instances of composition, rather than derivation; as, indeed, were *ganserich*, *tauberich*, and *enterich*.

§ 492. As a general rule, the names of females are derived from those of males, however, *wizard*, *gander*, and *drake* are exceptions

CHAPTER XII.

COLLECTIVES

§ 493 THE so-called plurals which, after the fashion of *oxen* and *fect*, are said to be formed from the singular by either adding *-en*, or changing the vowel, are *collectives*, or, at any rate in a general way, collectives rather than true plurals. In the older stages of our language, they were more numerous than they are now.

(1)

Hos-en	=	stocking-s	Scher-en	=	shue-s
Sho-en	=	shoc-s	Doght-en	=	daughtei-s
Ey-en	=	eye-s	Sustr-en	=	sister-s
Bischoep-en	=	bishop-s	Uncl-en	=	uncle-s
Eld-en	=	elder-s	Tre-en	=	trec-s
Aw-en	=	arrow-s	Sould-en	=	soldier-s

(2)

<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>		<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>	
Fieond	fýnd	<i>Friends</i>	Buh	byng	<i>Burghs</i>
Féond	fýnd	<i>Foes</i>	Bioc	brec	<i>Bierches</i>
Niht	mht	<i>Night</i>	Tuf	tyf	<i>Tuives</i>
Boc	bee	<i>Books</i>			

To these add, from the present language, *men*, *teeth*, *mice*, *lice*, *geese*

Kine is doubly changed; the Scotch form being *kye*, from *cow*. The same is the case with *brethren*, the forms being *brethre* and *brothre* in the Old English.

§ 494 *Forms in -ery*.—These are doubly derivative; so that the analysis of *fishery*, *rookery*, &c. is *fish-er-y*, *rook-er-y*, &c. Though there is such a word as *fisher*=*fisherman*, there is no such word as *rooker*, from which we get *rookery*. Neither does *fishery* mean a collection of *fishermen*, but one of *fishes*. Besides *yeomanry* and *Jewry*, the words *Englishry*, *Danishry*, and *Welshery*, are to be found in old authors.

Thise justise er atteynt of falshed and folie,
Now comes a new pleynt to destioie þe *Juene*,
þe king was enquere of þer wikked dedes
So many þer were dome on þam salle nedes.

ROBERT OF BOURNE, 247

In *Jewry* is God known, his name is great in Israel Ps. 76.

Dardan hight þe cheftayn of þat company,*
Sadok sonne of Denmark kyng *Danesy*

ROBERT OF BOURNE, 16

With loides þat were nehi he held his pailement
Al zole at Denebegh, after þam alle he sent,
To fend the *Walschire* with him at þei poweie

ROBERT OF BOURNE. 244

Eyre is generally said to mean the nest of an eagle :—

As an eagle, fed with moining,
Scoons the embattled tempest's warning
When she seeks hei *eyre*, hanging
In the mountam cedar's han,
And her blood expect the clanging
Of hei wings through the wild air
Sick with famine —SHELLEY

It rather means the *collection of eggs*, or *eggery*; for such is the old form of the word.

§ 495 What, however, is the *r*? In the Old Dutch and other allied dialects, we find a kind of plural in *-r*.

Hus-n.	<i>houses</i> ,	O H G
Chalp-n.	<i>cults</i> ,	do
Lemp-n.	<i>lumbs</i> ,	do
Plet-ir.	<i>blades</i> ,	do
Eign,	<i>eggs</i> ,	do

Indeed, in one word it occurs in provincial and archaic English, viz. *childer* = *children* All these are of the neuter gender

In other words, such as *foolery*, *prudery*, *bravery*, *slavery*, *witchery*, *stitchery* (*needlework*), &c, however, this origin is inadmissible, and the idea of collection or assemblage is either obscure or non-existent, the *-ry* having originated out of a false analogy

<i>Frisian</i>	<i>German</i>	<i>Danish</i>
Shriwweiari	Schreiberei	Skrivnerie
Swännerai	Schweineri	Schwineie
Thieweiri	Dieberei	Tyverie,

meaning *writing*, *swinishness*, and *theft*, respectively.

§ 496. For the difference between current and obsolete processes see above Having become familiar with this, look back upon the numerous forms, in the way of Derivation, which have just been given Doing this, observe which are obsolete,

* From a paper of Dr Guest's, in the *Transactions of the Philological Society*

which current. As a general rule, most of them are obsolete, especially the patronymics and diminutives. The abstract forms, however, are in full force; a fact by which we may measure the wants and condition of the English Language

CHAPTER XIII

ON DERIVED VERBS.

§ 497 THREE classes of *derived* verbs deserve notice.

1. Those ending in *-en*, an affix which may be attached to either an adjective or an abstract substantive, as *soft-en*, *whit-en*, &c, from *soft*, *white*, &c, and *strength-en*, *length-en*, from *strength* and *length*. They confer the quality which the adjective implies, and which the abstract substantive denotes by name.

2. Transitive verbs derived from intransitives by a change of the vowel of the root,

Rise	Raise
Lie	Lay
Sit	Set
Fall	Fell
Drink	Drench

In Anglo-Saxon these words were more numerous than they are at present

<i>Intransitive</i>		<i>Transitive</i>	
Yinan	<i>run</i>	æinan	<i>make to run</i>
Bynan	<i>burn</i>	bæinan	<i>make to burn</i>
Drincan	<i>drink.</i>	drincan	<i>drench</i>
Sincan	<i>sink</i>	sencan	<i>make to sink</i>
Liegan	<i>lie</i>	lecgan	<i>lay</i>
Sittan	<i>sit</i>	settan	<i>set</i>
Drifan	<i>drift.</i>	dræfan	<i>drive</i>
Feallan	<i>fall</i>	fyllan	<i>fell</i>
Weallan	<i>boil</i>	wyllan	<i>make to boil</i>
Fleogan	<i>fly</i>	a-fligan	<i>put to flight</i>
Bcogan	<i>bow.</i>	bigan	<i>bend.</i>
Faran	<i>go</i>	feran	<i>convey.</i>
Wacan	<i>wake</i>	weccan	<i>awaken</i>

3. Verbs formed from nouns by changing a final sonant into its corresponding surd; as—

The breath
The cloth

to breathe pronounced breäth.
to clothe — clôdh

Some of the words thus modified are of foreign origin, as *use* (*uze*) from *use* (pr. *uce*) ; *greaze* from *greuse*, and *prize* from *price*

CHAPTER XIV.

ADVERBS.

§ 498 THAT adverbs are formed by means of composition was shown when the nature of the termination *-ly* was explained. It will be shown in the sequel that they may also originate in Derivation, especially in Inflection.

That they are susceptible of the Degrees of Comparison has been seen.

§ 499 Certain forms in *-ing* now remain for notice. In such an expression as—

The candle went out, and so we went darkling — *King Lear*

the last word is no participle of a verb *darkle*, but an adverb of derivation, like *unwaringün* = *unawares*, Old High-German ; *stillenge* = *secretly*, Middle High-German ; *blindlings* = *blindly*, New High-German ; *darnungo* = *secretly*, Old Saxon, *nichtinge* = *by night*, Middle Dutch, *blindeling* = *blindly*, New Dutch ; *bæchinga* = *backwards*, *handlunga* = *hand to hand*, Anglo-Saxon ; and, finally, *blindlins*, *backlins*, *darklins*, *midullins*, *scantlins*, *stridelins*, *stowlins*, in Lowland Scotch.—*Deutsche Grammatik*, iii 236.

§ 500 In adverbs like *brightly*, &c., the termination *-ly* is common both to adjectives and to adverbs. It was once an independent word, viz. *leik*. Now, as *-ly* sprung out of the Anglo-Saxon *-lice*, and as words like *early*, *dearly*, &c., were originally *arlice*, *deorlice*, &c., and as *arlice*, *deorlice*, &c., were adjectives, the adverbs in *-ly* are (*strictly speaking*) adjectives in the neuter gender used adverbially.

§ 501. The following notices are miscellaneous rather than systematic.

Else, *unawares*, *eftsoons*—These are the genitive forms of adjectives. *By rights* is a word of the same sort.

Once, *twice*, *thrice*.—These are the genitive forms of numerals.

Needs (as in *needs must go*) is the genitive case of a substantive

Seldom.—The old dative (singular or plural) of the adjective *seld*.

Whilom —The dative (singular or plural) of the substantive *while*

Little, less, well —Neuter accusatives of adjectives. *Bright, in the sun shines bright*, is a word of the same class.

CHAPTER XV

ON CERTAIN ADVERBS OF PLACE

* 502. IT is a common practice for languages to express by different modifications of the same root the three following ideas. —

- 1 The idea of rest *in* a place
- 2 The idea of motion *towards* a place.
- 3 The idea of motion *from* a place.

This habit gives us three correlative adverbs—one of position, and two of direction

It is also a common practice of language to depart from the original expression of each particular idea, and to interchange the signs by which they are expressed

This may be seen in the following table, illustrative of the forms *here, hither, hence*, and taken from the *Deutsche Grammatik*, iii 199. —

<i>Mæso-Gothic</i>	þar, þap, þaþio, hêr, hup, hudiô,	<i>there, thither, thence</i> <i>here, hither, hence</i>
<i>Old High-German</i>	huân, huara, huanana, dâi, dala, danana, hêr, hêra, hûmana,	<i>where, whither, whence</i> <i>there, thither, thence</i> <i>here, hither, hence</i>
<i>Old Saxon</i>	huan, huar, huanan, thai, thai, thanan, hêr, hêr, hênan,	<i>where, whither, whence</i> <i>there, thither, thence</i> <i>here, hither, hence</i>
<i>Anglo-Saxon</i>	þar, þader, þonan, hvar, hvider, hvonan, hêr, hider, henan,	<i>there, thither, thence</i> <i>uhere, uwhither, whence</i> <i>here, hither, hence</i>
<i>Old Norse</i>	þar, þaðra, þaðan, hvar, hvort, hvaðan, hêr, hêðra, hêðan,	<i>there, thither, thence</i> <i>where, whither, whence</i> <i>here, hither, hence</i>

<i>Middle High-German</i>	dā, dan, dannen,	<i>there, thither, thence</i>
	wā, wai, waunen,	<i>where, whither, whence</i>
<i>Modern High-German</i>	hie, hei, hennen,	<i>here, hither, hence</i>
	da, dar, dannen,	<i>there, thither, thence</i>
	wo, wohin, waunen,	<i>where, whither, whence</i>
	hier, hei, hinnen,	<i>here, hither, hence.</i>

These local terminations were commoner in the earlier stages of language than at present. The following are from the Mæso-Gothic:—

Innaprô	= <i>from within</i>
Útaprô	= <i>from without</i>
Iupaprô	= <i>from above</i>
Fauraprô	= <i>from afar</i>
Allaprô	= <i>from all quarters</i>

Now a reason for the comparative frequency of these forms in Mæso-Gothic lies in the fact of the Gospel of Ulphilas being a translation from the Greek. The Greek forms in *-θεν*, *ἔσωθεν*, *ἔξωθεν*, *ἀνωθεν*, *πρόρρωθεν*, *πάντοθεν*, were just the forms to encourage such a formation as that in *-pro*.—*Deutsche Grammatik*, iii 199, &c.

§ 503. The *-ce* (= *es*) in *hen-ce*, *when-ce*, *then-ce*, has yet to be satisfactorily explained. The Old English is *whenn-es*, *thenn-es*. As far, therefore, as the spelling is concerned, they are in the same predicament with the word *once*, which is properly *on-es*, the genitive of *one*. This statement, however, explains only the peculiarity of their orthography, since it by no means follows, that, because the *-s* in *ones*, and the *-s* in *whennes*, *thennes*, are equally replaced by *-ce* in orthography, they must equally have the same origin in etymology.

§ 504. *Yonder*.—In the Mæso-Gothic we have the following forms *jáinar*, *jáinu*, *jáinþrô* = *illic*, *illuc*, *illinc*. They do not, however, explain the form *yon-d-er*. It is not clear whether the *d* = the *-d* in *jáind*, or the *þ* in *jáinþrô*.

§ 505. *Anon*, as used by Shakspeare, in the sense of *presently*.—The probable history of this word is as follows: the first syllable contains a root akin to the root *yon*, signifying *distance in place*. The second is a shortened form of the Old High-German and Middle High-German, *-nt*, a termination expressive, 1, of removal in space; 2, of removal in time. Old High-German, *enont*, *ennont*; Middle High-German, *enentlig*, *jenunt* = *beyond*. The transition from the idea of *place* to that of *time* is shown in the Old High-German, *nāhunt*, and the

Middle High-German, *vernent* = *lately*; the first from the root *nigh*, the latter from the root *far*.—See *Deutsche Grammatik*, III. 215

CHAPTER XVI

ON WHEN, THEN, AND THAN.

§ 506 THE Anglo-Saxon adverbs are *whenne* and *þenne* = *when*, *then*.

The masculine accusative cases of the relative and demonstrative pronoun are *hwane* (*hwone*) and *þæne* (*þone*)

Notwithstanding the difference, the first form is a variety of the second, so that the adverbs *when* and *then* are pronominal in origin

As to the word *than*, the conjunction of comparison, it is a variety of *then*, the notions of *order*, *sequence*, and *comparison* being allied

This is good then (or *next in order*) *that is good*, is an expression sufficiently similar to *this is better than that* to have given rise to it

CHAPTER XVII.

INFLECTION.—DECLENSION.—OF NOUNS —OF VERBS

§ 507. INFLECTION now comes under notice. It is a peculiar kind of Derivation, of Derivation rather than Composition. It is, however, by no means, certain that a definition could be framed so as to exclude all Compounds without inconvenience. The word *father-s*, whether taken as a Possessive Case or as a Nominative Plural, is a good sample of Inflection. The addition to the main word is the sound expressed by the single letter *-s*. That this is not a whole word is evident. By going back, however, to the Anglo-Saxon period we find that it was preceded by a vowel—*e* or *a*, as the case might be. Now, though this gives us a syllable, the affix is as far from being a separate and independent word as ever and, hence, it belongs to derivation rather than composition. But what if it be both possible, and

probable, that *all* derivation was once composition, just as all composition was, originally, the juxtaposition of separate words? For most purposes, however, composition and derivation are notably different; and, for most purposes, Inflection is a peculiar kind of *Derivation*. It (Inflection) falls into (1) Declension, and (2) Conjugation.

§ 508. Declension, when fully developed, as it is in the Latin, Greek, and other languages, and as it is *not* developed in the English, gives (1) Gender, (2) Number, (3) and Case. Conjugation, in like manner, and when similarly developed, gives (1) Voice, (2) Mood, (3) Tense, (4) Person. These are called the *Accidents* of the Inflected Parts of Speech; the Inflected Parts of Speech being (1) the Noun, (2) the Verb.

§ 509. Nouns are (1) Pronouns, (2) Substantives, (3) Adjectives. Participles are, in some respects, Adjectives, in other, Verbs.

To give precedence to the Pronoun over the Substantive and Adjective is unusual. The step, however, will be justified as we proceed.

Adverbs, as may be seen by what has preceded, inasmuch as they can take the Degrees of Comparison, are susceptible of Derivation; not, however, of Inflection.

Particles are wholly incapable of Derivation. They may arise out of Inflection, but they are not themselves inflected. Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections, are Particles. So are the words Yes and No; and in some languages, the words expressive of Interrogation.

The Copula *am, art, is, was, be, &c.*, has certain peculiarities which may give it a claim to be considered as a separate part of speech. It is generally, however, and not inconveniently, treated as a Verb; being called the Verb Substantive.

§ 510. Nouns are Declined, verbs are both Declined and Conjugated.

§ 511. The declension of verbs is a fact which should never be overlooked, otherwise we run the risk of drawing a broader line between them and the noun than the structure of language warrants. Without doubt the difference is both important and striking, and, without doubt, the two classes are natural. This, however, is wholly insufficient to put them in anything like *contrast* to one another. Though the noun has no moods and tenses, it cannot be said that the verb has no cases. More than this. If, on the strength of its decided verbal character, we

connect the participle with the verb (and in some sense most grammarians do so connect it) the inflection of the verb gives us not only the cases, but numbers and genders as well; for, although, in the present stage of our language, the participles are uninflected, in Anglo-Saxon their inflection was full, as it was in the Greek and Latin, and as it is in many modern languages. But without having recourse to the participle, which is generally, though not consistently, treated as a separate part of speech, the infinitive mood, along with the gerunds and supines, where they exist, is, for most purposes, a substantive. In Old High-German we have *blusennes* = *flandi*, and others. We may call this a Gerund if we choose. We may also, if we choose, call *to blassenne* a Supine; nevertheless, the result is a Noun in a Case. This is because the name of an action is an Abstract Substantive. When we connect an agent with the idea of time we get something concrete. But this gives us Persons and Tenses. A horse may *run*, or a man. The horse may *run* to-day, the man may have *run* yesterday. but if I wish to have the notion of the act of *running*, I must separate, or *draw it off*, from both the horses and the men who perform it. In both these cases the result is something which I can imagine, but which I cannot perceive through any of my senses. I can see a *man* in a *state of happiness*, and I can see a *horse* in the *act of running*. *Happiness*, however, without some happy object, or *the act of running*, without some object that runs, I cannot perceive; though I can imagine it. Both, however, are Substantives, one being the name of a quality, the other that of an action.

In English we have such lines as

To err is human, *to forgive* divine—

To be or not to be, that is the question—

in which a substantive in the nominative case is represented by a verb with a preposition before it. *To err* means *error*, and *to forgive* means *forgiveness*.

In Greek we find

τὸ φθονεῖν = *invidia*

τοῦ φθονεῖν = *invidiae*

ἐν τῷ φθονεῖν = *in invidia*.

This is because the name of any action may be used without any mention of the agent. Thus, we may speak of the simple fact of *walking* or *moving*, independently of any specification

of the *walker* or *mover*. When actions are spoken of thus indefinitely, the idea of either person or number has no place in the conception; from which it follows that the so-called infinitive mood must be at once impersonal, and without the distinction of singular, dual, and plural. Nevertheless, the ideas of time and relation in space have place in the conception. We can think of a person *being in the act of striking a blow*, of his *having been in the act of striking a blow*, or of his *being about to be in the act of striking a blow*. We can also think of a person *being in the act of doing a good action*, or of his *being from the act of doing a good action*.

CHAPTER XVIII

ON GENDER.

§ 512. How far have we Genders in English? This depends on our definitions.

The distinction of sex by wholly different words, such as *boy* and *girl*; *father* and *mother*; *horse* and *mare*, &c., is *not* gender. Neither are words like *man-servant*, *he-goat*, &c., contrasted with *maid-servant*, *she-goat*, &c.

In the Latin words *genitrix* = *a mother*, and *genitor* = *a father*, the difference of sex is expressed by a difference of termination: the words being either derived from each other, or from some common source. This, however, in strict grammatical language, is an approach to gender rather than gender itself. Let the words be declined:—

<i>Sing. Nom</i>	<i>Genitor</i>	<i>Genitrix.</i>
<i>Gen</i>	<i>Genitor-is</i>	<i>Genitric-is</i>
<i>Dat</i>	<i>Genitor-i</i>	<i>Genitric-i.</i>
<i>Acc</i>	<i>Genitor-em</i>	<i>Genitric-em.</i>
<i>Voc</i>	<i>Genitor</i>	<i>Genitrix.</i>
<i>Plur Nom</i>	<i>Genitor-es</i>	<i>Genitric-es.</i>
<i>Gen</i>	<i>Genitor-um</i>	<i>Genitric-um.</i>
<i>Dat</i>	<i>Genitor-ibus</i>	<i>Genitric-ibus.</i>
<i>Acc</i>	<i>Genitor-es</i>	<i>Genitric-es</i>
<i>Voc</i>	<i>Genitor-es</i>	<i>Genitric-es</i>

The syllables in italics are the signs of the cases and numbers. Now these signs are the same in each word, the differ-

ence of sex not affecting them. Contrast, however, with the words *genitor* and *genitrix* the words *domina* = *a mistress*, and *dominus* = *a master*.

<i>Sing</i>	<i>Nom</i>	<i>Domin-a</i>	<i>Domin-us</i>
	<i>Gen</i>	<i>Domin-æ</i>	<i>Domin-i</i>
	<i>Dat</i>	<i>Domin-æ</i>	<i>Domin-o</i>
	<i>Acc.</i>	<i>Domin-am</i>	<i>Domin-um</i>
	<i>Voc.</i>	<i>Domin-a</i>	<i>Domin-e</i>
<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Domin-æ</i>	<i>Domin-i</i>
	<i>Gen.</i>	<i>Domin-arum</i>	<i>Domin-orum</i>
	<i>Dat</i>	<i>Domin-ibus</i>	<i>Domin-is</i>
	<i>Acc.</i>	<i>Domin-as</i>	<i>Domin-os</i>
	<i>Voc</i>	<i>Domin-æ</i>	<i>Domin-i.</i>

Here the letters in italics, or the signs of the cases and numbers, are different. Now it is very evident that, if *genitrix* be a specimen of gender, *domina* is something more.

Hence, as terms, to be useful must be limited, it may be laid down, as a sort of definition, that *there is no gender where there is no affection of the declension.*

§ 513. Another element in the notion of gender, although I will not venture to call it an essential one, is the following:—In the words *domina* and *dominus*, *mistress* and *master*, there is a *natural* distinction of sex, the one being masculine or male, the other feminine, or female. In the words *sword* and *lance* there is no *natural* distinction of sex. Notwithstanding this, the word *hasta*, in Latin, is as much a feminine gender as *domina*, whilst *gladius* = *a sword*, is, like *dominus*, a masculine noun. From this we see that, in languages wherein there are true genders, a fictitious or conventional sex is attributed even to inanimate objects, so that sex is a natural distinction, gender a grammatical one. Now, in English, we sometimes attribute sex to objects naturally destitute of it. The *sun* in his *glory*, the *moon* in her *wane*, are examples of this. A sailor calls his ship *she*. A husbandman, according to Mr. Cobbett, does the same with his *plough* and working implements.—

“In speaking of a *ship* we say *she* and *her*. And you know that our country-folk in Hampshire call almost everything *he* or *she*. It is curious to observe that country labourers give the feminine appellation to those things only which are more closely identified with themselves, and by the qualities or conditions of which their own efforts, and then character as workmen, are affected. The mower calls his *scythe* a *she*, the ploughman calls his *plough* a

she but a prong, or a shovel, or a harrow, which passes promiscuously from hand to hand, and which is appropriated to no particular labourer, is called a *he*.”—*English Grammar*, Letter V

§ 514. Although this may account for a sailor calling his ship *she*, it will not account for the custom of giving to the sun a masculine, and to the moon a feminine, pronoun, still less will it account for the circumstance of the Germans reversing the gender, and making the *sun* feminine, and the *moon* masculine. The explanation here is different. Let there be a period in the history of a nation wherein the sun and moon are dealt with, not as inanimate masses of matter, but as animated divinities. Let there, in other words, be a period in the history of a nation wherein dead things are personified, and wherein there is a mythology. Let an object like the *sun* be deemed a male, and an object like the *moon* a female, deity, and we, easily, account for the Germans saying *the sun in her glory*, *the moon in his wane*.—“*Mundilfori had two children, a son, Máni (Moon), and a daughter, Sol (Sun)*”—Such is an extract taken out of an Icelandic mythological work, viz the prose *Edda*. In the classical languages, however, *Phœbus* and *Sol* are masculine, and *Luna* and *Diana* feminine. Hence it is that, although, in Anglo-Saxon and Old Saxon, the *sun* is *feminine*, it is, in English, *masculine*

§ 515. *Philosophy*, *charity*, &c, or the names of abstract qualities personified, take a conventional sex, and are *feminine*, from their being *feminine* in Latin. In these words there is no change of form, so that the consideration of them is a point of rhetoric, rather than of etymology.

CHAPTER XIX.

NUMBER.

§ 516. HAVING separated the idea of Collectiveness from that of Plurality, we may ask to what extent have we numbers in English? Like the Greek, Hebrew, and Latin, we have a Singular and a Plural. Like the Latin, and unlike the Greek and Hebrew, we have no Dual. There is no dual in the *present* English. In the Anglo-Saxon there *was* an approach to one dual: *wit*=*we two*, *git*=*ye two*. Why is this only an approach? Because *git* is, really, two words, *ye two* in a contracted form

There is no dual in the present German. In the ancient German there *was* one. In the present Danish and Swedish there is no dual. In the Old Norse and in the present Icelandic a dual number is to be found. From this we learn that the dual number is one of those inflections that languages drop as they become modern. The numbers, then, in the present English are two, the singular and the plural.

§ 517. Over what extent of language have we a plural? The Latins say, *bonus pater* = *a good father*, *boni patres* = *good fathers*. In the Latin, the adjective *bonus* changes its form with the change of number of the substantive that it accompanies. In English it is only the substantive that is changed. Hence we see that in the Latin language the numbers were extended to adjectives; whereas in English they are confined to the substantives and pronouns. Compared with the Anglo-Saxon, the present English is in the same relation as it is to the Latin. In the Anglo-Saxon there were plural forms for the adjectives

CHAPTER XX.

CASE.

§ 518. THE extent to which there are, in the English language, cases, depends on the meaning which we attach to the word. In *a house of a father*, the relation between the words *father* and *house* is expressed by the preposition *of*. In *a father's house* the idea is, there or thereabouts, the same; the relation or connection between the two words being the same. The expression, however, differs. In *a father's house* the relation, or connection, is conveyed, not by a preposition, but by a change of form, *father* becoming *father's*.

§ 519. *The father taught the child* — Here there is neither preposition nor change of form; and the connection between the words *father* and *child* is denoted by the arrangement only.

§ 520. Now if the relation alone between two words constitute a case, the words or sentences, *child*, *to a father*, *of a father*; and *father's*, are all equally cases; of which one may be called the accusative, another the dative, a third the genitive, and so on. Perhaps, however, the relationship alone does *not* constitute a case.

§ 521. For etymological purposes it is necessary to limit the meaning of the word; and, as a sort of definition, it may be laid down that *where there is no change of form there is no case*. With this remark, the English language may be compared with the Latin.

	Latin	English
Sing Nom	<i>Pater</i>	<i>a father</i>
Gen	<i>Patris</i>	<i>a father's</i>
Dat	<i>Patri</i>	<i>to a father</i>
Acc	<i>Patrem</i>	<i>a father</i>
Abl	<i>Patre</i>	<i>from a father</i>

Here, since in the Latin language there are five changes of form, whilst in the English there are but *two*, there are (as far, at least, as the word *pater* and *father* are concerned) three more cases in Latin than in English.

§ 522. It does not, however, follow that because in *father* we have but two cases, there may not be other words wherein there are more than two. Neither does it follow that, because two words have the same form, they are in the same case, a remark which leads to the distinction between *a real and an accidental identity of form*. In the language of the Anglo-Saxons the genitive cases of the words *smith*, *end*, and *day* were respectively, *smithes*, *endes*, and *dayes*; whilst the nominative plurals were, respectively, *smithas*, *endas*, and *dayas*. A process of change took place by which the vowel of the last syllable in each word was ejected. The result was, that the forms of the genitive singular and the nominative plural, originally different, became one and the same. so that the identity of the two cases is an accident. This relieves the English grammarian from a difficulty. The nominative plural and the genitive singular are, in the present language of England, identical; the apostrophe in *father's* being a mere matter of orthography. However, there was *once* a difference. This modifies the previous statement, which may now stand thus—*for a change of case there must be a change of form existing or presumed*.

§ 523. *The number of our cases and the extent of language over which they spread*—In the English language there is undoubtedly a *nominative case*. This occurs in substantives, adjectives, and pronouns (*father*, *good*, *he*) equally. It is found in both numbers.

The words *him* and *them* (whatever they may have been originally) are now true accusatives. So are *thee*, *me*, *us*, and

you. They are accusative thus far 1. They are not derived from any other case. 2. They are distinguished from the forms, *I, my, &c.* 3 Their meaning is accusative Nevertheless, they are only imperfect accusatives. They have no sign of case, and are distinguished by negative characters only

§ 524 One word of English is probably a true accusative in the strict sense of the term, viz the word *twain* = *two*. The *-n* in *twain-n* is the *-n* in *hine* = *him* and *hwone* = *whom*.

§ 525. *The determination of cases.*—How do we determine cases? In other words, why do we call *him* and *them* accusatives rather than datives or genitives? By one of two means, viz. either by the sense or the form. Suppose that in the English language there were ten thousand dative cases and as many accusatives. Suppose, also, that all the dative cases ended in *-m*, and all the accusatives in some other letter. It is very evident, that whatever might be the *meaning* of the words *him* and *them*, their *form* would be dative In this case, the meaning being accusative, and the form dative, we should doubt which test to take

§ 526 My own opinion is, that it would be convenient to determine cases by the *form* of the word *alone*, so that, even if a word had a dative sense only once, where it had an accusative sense ten thousand times, such a word should be said to be in the dative case. Now, as stated above, the words *him* and *them* (to which we may add *whom*) were once dative cases; *-m* in Anglo-Saxon being the sign of the dative case. In the time of the Anglo-Saxons their sense coincided with their form At present they are dative forms with an accusative meaning Still, as the word *give* takes after it a dative case, we have, even now, in the sentence, *give it him, give it them*, remnants of the old dative sense. To say, *give it to him, to them*, is unnecessary and pedantic. neither need we object to the expression, *whom shall I give it* If ever the formal test become generally recognized and consistently adhered to, *him, them, and whom* will be called datives with a latitude of meaning; and then the approximate accusatives in the English language will be the forms *you, thee, us, me*, and the only true accusative will be the word *twain*.

For practical purposes, however, the present English avoids some of the difficulties here suggested For the ordinary purposes of grammar, we use neither the term Accusative, nor the term Dative. making the term Objective serve for both Doing

this we say that the *him* is Objective, whatever may be the construction, *i. e.* whether it be Dative as *like him*, *give it him*; Accusative, as *strike him*; or Ablative, as *part of him*, *take it from him*.

§ 527. The present is a proper time for exhibiting the difference between the *current* and the *obsolete* processes of a language. By adding the sound of the *s* in *seal* to the word *father*, we change it into *father-s*. Hence the addition of the sound in question is the process by which the word *father* is changed into *fathers*. The process by which *ox* is changed into *ox-en* is the addition of the sound of the syllable *-en*.

In all languages there are two sorts of processes, those that are in operation at a certain period, and those that have ceased to operate. In illustration of this, let us suppose that, from the Latin, Greek, French, or some other language, a new word was introduced into the English, and that this word was a substantive of the singular number. Suppose the word was *tuk*, and that it meant a sort of *dwelling-house*. In the course of time it would be necessary to use this word as the plural; and the question would arise as to the manner in which that number should be formed.

§ 528. Now we have not less than three forms expressive of the idea of plurality, or something closely akin to it; and consequently three processes by which a singular may be converted into either a true plural or its equivalent:—

1. The addition of *-s*, *-z*, or *-ez* (*es*).
2. The change of vowel.
3. The addition of *-n*.

Notwithstanding this, it is very certain that the plural of a new word would *not* be formed in *-en* (like *oxen*) nor yet by a change of vowel (like *feet*); but by addition of *-s*—the one process being *current*, the other *obsolete*. Such is the illustration, which, for the ordinary purposes of grammar, is sufficient. For the ordinary purposes of grammar, it may safely be said that the time has gone by for the development afresh of forms like *oxen* and *feet*. They are obsolete. In strict language, however, they are not obsolete *plurals*. They are, rather, collectives, which simulate plurals. Still, they are obsolete.

§ 529. Another point connected with the inflections of the English language commands notice inasmuch as, if it be overlooked, we shall run the risk of thinking it more unlike its

congeners than it really is. The inflections of the German, Icelandic, &c, give what is called an *umlaut*=*about-sound*, the word having a definite technical meaning. An *umlaut* takes place when a vowel in the radical part of a word is accommodated to the vowel of the inflectional addition, so that the plural (which is formed by adding *e*) of a word like *fluss*=*river* is not *flusse*, but *flusse*.

We have a little of this *umlaut*; but only a little. We have it in *elder* from *old*, *rather* from *rathe*, *women* (pronounced *wimmen*), from *woman*,* *brethren* from *brother*, and a few others.

Such is the fact. The equivalents to the *umlaut* are rare in English, and found only in fragments. There is a reason for this. The accommodation is *generally* from the broader to the smaller sound. But the additions themselves in A. S. were generally broad, (e. g. *smith-as*), and in modern English they are generally *without* a vowel of any kind (e. g. *smiths*).

The same broadness of the vowel of the inflections characterizes the Moeso-Gothic; wherein the *umlauts* are at a *minimum*. The early stage of the language has something to do with this.

CHAPTER XXI

INFLECTION OF PRONOUNS — THEIR PECULIARITIES. — *SELF*, *ONE*, *OTHER* — OF THE INTERROGATIVE, RELATIVE, AND DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

§ 530. IN respect to their Declension, Pronouns fall into three classes. In the first, it is purely Pronominal, in the second it is that of a Substantive, in the third it is that of an Adjective; *i. e.* it is nothing at all. Now, although this last is a negative fact, it is well to note it in a positive and decided manner, inasmuch as the differences in the declension of pronouns coincide with certain differences of power. Whilst words like *same* and *any* are, both in import and in the want of de-

* This plural is formed after that of *man* as if the word were really, (what many believe it to be,) *wife-man*, or *womb-man*, or some such compound. It is not this, being, word for word, the Latin *femina*, a term which is Sanskrit and Lithuanic as well as German and Latin.

clension, closely akin to the Adjective; whilst *self*, with its plural *selves*, is Substantival, the typical Pronouns like *who* or *I*, &c, are neither one nor the other, either in sense or inflection; but members of a class *per se*. In the present stage of our language these statements may be taken without either reserve or qualification; though, in the older stages, some reservations will be needed.

§ 531. The Adjectival Pronouns with the *no*-declension may be disposed of at once. They are *same*, *any*, *many*, and others. Their place is the dictionary rather than the grammar. Though, now undeclined, they were declined in A. S.

§ 532. The Substantival Pronouns are three in Number:—

(1)			
	<i>Sing</i>		<i>Plur</i>
<i>Nom</i>	<i>Self</i>	<i>Nom</i>	<i>Selves</i>
<i>Poss</i>	<i>Self's</i>	<i>Poss</i>	<i>Selves'</i>

Declined like *shelf*

(2)			
	<i>Sing</i>		<i>Plur</i>
<i>Nom</i>	<i>Other</i>	<i>Nom</i>	<i>Others</i>
<i>Poss</i>	<i>Other's</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Others'</i>

Declined like *mother*.

(3)			
	<i>Sing.</i>		<i>Plur</i>
<i>Nom</i>	<i>One</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Ones</i>
<i>Poss</i>	<i>One's</i>	<i>Poss</i>	<i>Ones'</i>

Declined like *swan*.

In A. S. these were declined like Adjectives.

§ 533. The identity of form between the words *one* the indefinite pronoun, and *one* the numeral, is entirely accidental. The numeral has no plural number, besides which, the meaning and the origin of the two words are different. The word under notice is derived from the French, and is the *on* in such expressions as *on dit*. This, in its turn, is from the Latin *homo* = *man*. The German for *on dit*, at the present time, is *man sagt* (*man says*), and until the Norman Conquest the same mode of expression prevailed in England. *One* is often called the Indeterminate Pronoun. It is used in the Possessive Case, and in the Plural Number in such expressions as—*One is unwilling to put one's friend to trouble*—*My wife and little ones are well*—*These are my two little ones' playthings*. Such forms as *self's*

and *selves*' are undoubtedly rare. At the same time they are possible forms, and, if wanted, are strictly grammatical. Substitute the word *individuality* for *self*, and we see how truly its nature is *substantival*; e g A. *This is the opinion of a humble individual (myself)*. B. *So much, then, for your humble individuality (self) and for your humble individuality's (self's) opinion.*

§ 534. The purely pronominal forms now come before us. They fall into two classes. Of the first, *who*, of the second, *thou*, is the type.

§ 535. The small, but important, class to which *who*, with its congeners, belongs, gives two numbers, more than two cases, and, in its fuller form, three genders—three *true* genders.

It gives two numbers, a singular and a plural, as *this*, *these*. This, however, though more than we find in the Adjective, is *not* more than we find in the Substantive.

It gives, at least, three cases—a Nominative, *who*, a Possessive *whose*, and an Objective *whom*. The Objective case in the *Substantive* exists in the Syntax only: in other words, it has no distinctive form. With the *Pronoun*, we say *he struck him*. With the *Substantive* we say *the father loves the child*, or, *the child loves his father* indifferently.

Finally, it gives, at least, two true genders and fragments of a third. One of these genders is a Neuter.

§ 536. This neuter ends in *-t*, and in the three words wherein it occurs we have the pronominal inflection in its typical form.

§ 537. The first division contains—

- 1 The Interrogative;
- 2 The Relative,
- 3 The Demonstrative Pronouns;

all declined on the same principle *i. e.* with the Neuter in *-t*, a Possessive in *-s*, and an Objective in *-m*, as *what-t*, *whose*, *who-m*. This we have in the language as it now stands. In the Anglo-Saxon, however, there was a true Accusative Masculine in *-n*, e g *hwæne*. It is because the Interrogative, Relative, and Demonstrative Pronouns are declined on the same principle, that they form a natural group; and it is because they best exemplify the pronominal inflection, that they come first.

§ 538. The Interrogative comes before the Relative because it is, apparently, the older part of speech. In our own, and many other languages, these two Pronouns are identical. In

the Irish Gaelic, however, they are different ; and in more than one other tongue there is no Relative at all. The Interrogative, however, is universal. At any rate, though there are several languages which have an Interrogative without a Relative, I know of none where there is a Relative without an Interrogative.

§ 539. The A. S. form of the Interrogative was *hwá*, declined thus—Nom. *hwa* ; Accus. *hwæne* ; Dat. *hwem* ; Gen. *hwes* ; Genitive and Dative Feminine *hwære*, Genitive Plural *hwæra* ; Instrumental *hwi*. Closely connected with *hwi* (= *quâ causâ*) is *how* (= *quo modo*). The present forms of *hwæne*, *hwære*, and *hwi* have been already noticed. *Hwæra* (gen plur) is obsolete. As to *whose*, it only *seems* to end in *-se*. The proper spelling is *whoes* (*who's*). The vulgar error that *which* is the neuter of *who*, has already been corrected and condemned. The Inflection of the Relative is that of the Interrogative. It is only in respect to their Syntax that they differ.

§ 540. The *Demonstratives* imply the idea of something *pointed-out*. We can imagine a stage in the very infancy of language when the use of them was accompanied by the finger, and an object within reach was touched, one more distant pointed to, and one more distant still indicated by attention drawn to the direction in which it lay. In this condition of things there is one word for the far distant bodies, and, perhaps, two for those that lay within ken—these latter falling into two divisions. (1) one containing the *contiguous*, (2) one containing those that lay on the boundary line between the near and distant. Later still, one of these nearer objects might pass simply for something that was neither the speaker nor the person spoken to—in which case it would be little more than what is called the name for the third person. With this, as a preliminary, we may consider details.

§ 541. The Demonstrative for objects in the far distance is *yon*. It is only its history which brings the word in its present class. Looking to its declension only, it belongs to the adjectival pronouns. *Historically*, however, it is a word of importance. It is an old one. It is German, being the *jen-* in *jen-er*. It is Lithuanic, *onás*=*that*, *yon*. In both the German and the Lithuanic, it is declined in full. The declension, however, in English is obsolete.

The name for objects near enough to be considered at-hand, and, at the same time, far enough to be separated from anything within touch (there or thereabouts), yet not in the vague dis-

tance, is \sqrt{th} , or the root *th-*, as in *this* and *that*. I can devise no better exposition than this. The word in question is not *this*, is not *that*, is not *the*. It is something which, without being either one or the other exactly, gives us all three. It shows itself very definitely as *this* and *that*—contrasted with one another, and indicating *comparative* and *definite* nearness, nearness which is *comparative* when contrasted with what is expressed by *yon*, and *definite*, when contrasted with the meaning of *the* and *they*.

§ 542. This division into the definite and indefinite gives us what has just been foreshadowed, namely, something sufficiently demonstrative to be neither *this* nor *that* (still less *yon*), and something sufficiently connected with the speaker to mean something related to him, without being either himself or the persons spoken to. In other words, it gives us a *third* object, and when that object is a human being, a *third person*. All this has been given as a preliminary, because *he*, *she*, and *it*, generally dealt with as Personal Pronouns of the Third Person, are here treated as Demonstratives, in which case *he* and *she* = *that person*, and *it* = *that thing*. How far this alteration is gratuitous or scientific will be seen as we proceed.

§ 543. *Upon the whole*, the Demonstratives are declined like the Interrogatives. No wonder. They answer to them.

Question. What is that?

Answer. It is *this*, *that*, *he*, *she*, or *it*, as the case may be.

Upon the whole, the two sections belong to the same class; though there are details in which they differ. All, however, have a neuter in *-t*, as *wha-t*, *tha-t*, *i-t*.

§ 544. The present declension of the demonstrative pronouns is as follows:—

(1)

	<i>Masc</i>	<i>Neut</i>	<i>Fem</i>
<i>Nom</i>	He	It	—
<i>Obj</i>	Hum	It	Hei
<i>Poss</i>	His	—	Hei
<i>Secondary, Prelative,</i> <i>or Adjectival Poss</i> }	—	Its	Heis.

No plural form

(2)

She—Defective in the oblique cases

* For the meaning of *this*, see the Syntax.

(3)

<i>Sing</i>	<i>Nom</i>	That	<i>Plur</i>	<i>Nom</i>	They
	<i>Obj</i>	That		<i>Obj.</i>	Them
	—			<i>Poss</i>	Then
	—		<i>Secondary, Predicative, or Adjectival Poss</i>		Then

§ 515 *His*—*Mutatis mutandis*, what applies to *whose* applies to *his*

Et quidem ipsa vox *his*, ut et interrogativum *whose*, nihil aliud sunt quam *hee's, who's*, ubi s. omnino idem prestat quod in aliis possessivis. Similiter autem *his* pro *hee's* eodem errore quo nunquam *bin* pro *been*, item *uhose* pro *uho's* eodem errore quo *dane, gone, knowne, groune, &c.*, pro *dnen, goen, knowen, vel do'n, go'n, know'n, grou'n*, utrobique contra analogiam linguæ sed usu defenditur—WALLIS, c. v

The A. S. hira—*Hira* (with an *-a*) was the A. S. Genitive Plural. Like *hwæra*, however, *hira*=*eorum* and *earum* has been superseded. Considering that the whole A. S. Plural of *he* is obsolete, we may well say that the phenomenon of defect and complement is greatly developed amongst the English Pronouns

It—That this, notwithstanding the loss of the initial breathing, is a true inflection of *he* we learn from the A. S., where the genders run—Masc *he*, Fem *heo*, Neut *hit*. In the present German the *h* is lost altogether, and *er*=*he*, *es*=*it*

Its.—This is not only a catachrestic form, but a recent one. It is in English such a form as *idius*, or *illudius*, instead of *ejus* or *illius* would be in Latin; giving us an inflection engrafted upon an inflection, i. e. an *-s* as the sign of the Possessive Case attached to a *-t* as the sign of the Neuter Gender.

Hoo.—*The A. S. heo*=*she*.—Though replaced in the present language by *she*, the A. S. *heo* is still to be found as a provincialism—generally as *hoo*, sometimes (wrongly) as *her* or *hur*.

Him.—Now objective, i. e. either dative or accusative. Originally, dative only.

The A. S. hyne—In A. S. the accusative was *hyne*, now obsolete, though not extinct. It is the *en* (= *him*) of the Dorsetshire dialect

* For the meaning of this, see the Syntax

§ 546. *She*.—At present this word is uninflected. In A. S., however, it was a truly feminine form, from *se*. It had not, however, its present power, but rather coincided with the definite article, which ran—

Se = \acute{o}
Seo = \acute{y}
That = τo

in Greek.

Se is extinct; displaced by *the*. What was its development? In the German languages slight. The Mæso-Gothic gives *sa* and *so*, the Old Norse *sá* and *sú*. Where are the equivalents to *him*, *her*, &c.? Why should they not be looked for? They will be found if sought—though not within the pale of German. The Lithuanic is the language that best illustrates this now fragmentary form; the Lithuanic giving us a full declension of the root *-sz-*. It means *this*—so that *szis*, *szí* = *se*, *seo*, whilst *jís*, *jí* = *he* and *heo*—the declension of the two words being the same, as, doubtless, they were originally in German

	<i>Singular</i>	
	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	szis	szì
<i>Accusative</i>	szì	szie
<i>Locative</i>	sziamè	sziojo
<i>Dative</i>	sziam	szì
<i>Instrumental</i>	szium	szie
<i>Genitive</i>	szio	szios
	<i>Dual</i>	
<i>Nominative</i>	szidu	szedoi
<i>Accusative</i>	szidu	szedoi
<i>Dative</i>	szemdyen	szionadoem
<i>Instrumental</i>	szemdyem	szionadyem
<i>Genitive</i>	szudyen	szionadyen
	<i>Plural</i>	
<i>Nominative</i>	szc	szios
<i>Accusative</i>	szius	szies
<i>Locative</i>	szivsc	szioscè
<i>Dative</i>	szoms	szioms
<i>Instrumental</i>	szels	sziomis
<i>Genitive</i>	szu	szù

So comes from $\sqrt{s-}$, as *how* comes from $\sqrt{hw-}$, though the exact details are uncertain.

Such, too, is to $\sqrt{s-}$, *mutatis mutandis*, as *which* is to

✓*wh-*, the full form being *swa-luk*. It is also the Lithuanic *soks*

§ 547.

	<i>Singular</i>				<i>ingular</i>		
	<i>Neut</i>	<i>Masc</i>	<i>Fem</i>		<i>Neut</i>	<i>Masc</i>	<i>Fem</i>
Nominative	þat	—	—		þis	þes	þeós
Accusative	þat	þone	þā		þis	þisne	þus
Instrumental.	þy	—	—		þise	þise	þisse
Dative	þám	þám	þa'ie		þisum	þisum	þisse
Genitive	þæs	þæs	þa'ie		þises	þises	þissa
	<div> <div></div> </div>				<div> <div></div> </div>		
	<i>Plural</i>						
Nominative Accusative	þā				þís		
Ablative Dative	þám				þisum		
Genitive	þara				þissa		

þe = *the* undeclined, and used for all cases and genders.

Just as *he* ran—

	<i>Singular</i>		
Nominative.	<i>hit</i>	<i>he</i>	<i>heó</i>
Accusative	<i>hit</i>	<i>hne</i>	<i>hi</i>
Dative	<i>him</i>	<i>him</i>	<i>hire</i>
Genitive	<i>his</i>	<i>his</i>	<i>hire</i>

Plural		
Nominative, Accusative	hi	
Dative.	him (heom)	
Genitive	hna (heora)	

§ 548. With these preliminaries, it is not difficult to give the historic details of the defect and complement with *th-*, as they appear in *they*, *their*, and *them*, which are, at the present time, only found in the plural.

A form *þe* = *the*, common for all cases, all numbers, and all genders, displaced *se*.

Its displaced *his*.

Him, as an objective case singular, displaced *hne*.

Nothing, then, was left but the plural forms, which now remain, and, these—viz *they*, *their*, *them*—displaced the A. S. *he*, *heora*, *heom*.

§ 549 The details between *these* and *those* are obscure. At the present time *those* is the plural of ✓*th-*; of which the neuter is *that*. In like manner *these* is the plural of *this*; a word which is declined on the same principle as the preceding. Hence it had *þisne* (provincial *thisn*) as an accusative, *þisum* as a dative, *þises* as a genitive, *þissa* as a genitive plural.

	<i>Singular</i>		
	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
<i>Old High-German</i>	deser	desju	diz
<i>Old Saxon.</i>	these	thus	tht
<i>Anglo-Saxon</i>	þes	þeos	þis

	<i>Plural</i>		
	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
<i>Old High-German</i>	dese	deso	desju
<i>Old Saxon</i>	thesê	thesâ	thus
<i>Anglo-Saxon</i>	þas for all genders		

Now it is clear that in *these* the *-s* is no inflection, but a radical part of the word, like the *s* in *geese*. But what of the final *e*? Was it mute? If so, it is a mere point of spelling. Dr Guest, however, has made this view untenable, and shown that, in the Old English at least, it was an actual sign of number.

When *these* Bretons tuo were fled out of *this* land —ROBERT OF BOURNE
This is thilk disciple that bereth witnessyng of *these* thynghis, and wiout
 them —WYCLIFFE, John xxi

Say to us in what powers thou doist *these* thynghis, and who is he that gaf to
 thee *this* power —WYCLIFFE, Luke xv

His, though a Possessive Case, was similarly inflected

Yet the while he spake to the puple lo *his* mother and *hise* biethren stonden
 withoute forth —WYCLIFFE, Matt xii

And *hise* disciples camen and token *his* body —WYCLIFFE, Matt xiv

§ 550 Observe the form *py*. We may call it, if we choose, an Ablative Case, but it is rather an Instrumental one; *py mȃ* = *eo magis* = *by that much more*.

It is, then, in such expressions as *all the more*, *all the better*, a different word from the article *the*, with which its apparent identity is only accidental. The article comes from *þe*—undeclined.

§ 551. Connected with the disuse of *his* as a Neuter, is the question as to the origin of *its*; upon which I give, *in extenso*, the following interesting extract from a paper by Mr. Watts.—

We should thus have been enabled, for instance, to ascertain both with ease and precision, at what period a word now so familiar as “*its*”—the possessive case of the neuter pronoun—was first introduced into English. At present the only information on the subject that can be derived from the comparison of the different versions of the Bible is, that so lately as 1611—the date of the issue of the authorized version—the word did not exist, or at all events was not considered to belong to that elevated portion of the language regarded as

suitable for the translation of the sacred writings. There is one verse of the Bible in which the neuter pronoun would now be used very frequently in different cases, and it is curious to observe how it is dealt with in the various versions.

The recent editors of what is generally called Wickliffe's Bible have, as has been already stated, printed two versions at length. The verse alluded to (which is the 9th of Numbers, chapter iv) is far from alike in the two renderings. Wickliffe's is as follows —

"And thei shulen take the iacynetyng mantil with the which thei shulen couer the candelestick with the lanterns and *her* tooenges and snytels."

Purvey's runs thus —

"Thei schulen take also a mentil of iacynt with which thei schulen hile the candlestike with *hise* lanternes and tongis and snytels."

It will be observed that it is here a candlestick which is on one occasion referred to, with "*her* tongis," and in the other, with "*his* lanterns," — in neither case with "*its*," that in fact in one case the candlestick seems to be made of the feminine, and in the other of the masculine gender. The uncertainty prevailed for centuries after the time of Wickliffe. In Tyndale's version of the Pentateuch, printed in 1530, the candlestick is both feminine and neuter —

"And they shall take a cloth of iacynete and cover the candlesticke of light and hir lampes and hir snoffeis and fyre pannes and all hir oyle vessels which they occupy aboute *it* and shall put upon *her* and on all *hir* instrumentes a couerynge of taxus skynnes and put it upon stauens."

In Coverdale's version, printed in 1535, the passage is as follows —

"And they shall take a yalowe clothe and cover the candlesticke of light therewith, and *his* lampes, with *his* snoffeis and outquencheis," &c. &c.

In Matthews's Bible (1537), the candlestick is feminine again —

"And they shall take a cloth of iacynete and couer the candlestycke of lyght and *her* lampes and *her* snoffeis and fyre panes and all *her* oyle vessels which they occupy aboute it," &c.

Last of all comes the authorized version —

"And they shall take a cloth of blue and cover the candlestick of the light and *his* lamps and *his* tongs and *his* snuffdishes and all the oil vessels thereof wherewith they minister unto *it*."

From the repetition of "*his* lamps, *his* tongs, and *his* snuffdishes," in connection with the "*it*" at the end of the verse, the pronouns in all cases referring to the candlestick, no other conclusion can be drawn than that the word "*its*" did not then exist, or was purposely excluded. The same phenomenon presents itself repeatedly in other portions of the same book, in which, from the nature of the subject, the occasion for these pronouns occurs more frequently than in other portions of the Scriptures. It has been suggested, that the regular possessive for *it*, before the introduction of *its*, was *his*, but it will be remarked, that if this observation be true, it will only apply to one stage of our language. The quotation from Matthews's Bible shows that in the time of Henry the Eighth, the candlestick could be spoken of with "*her* oil vessels which they occupy about *it*."

It would be a curious task to trace at what period the missing possessive pronoun found its way into our language and who introduced it. In Shakespeare there are frequent indications of its non-existence. Thus in the opening speech of the king in *Henry the Fourth* we find —

"The edge of wa, like an ill-sheathed sword,
Shall only cut *his* master "

and there is a still more apposite instance in the opening scene of *Hamlet* —

"When you same star that 's westward from the pole,
Had made *his* course to illume that part of heaven
Where now *it* burns "

The verbal indexes to Shakspeare and Milton, minute as they are, do not descend to words deemed so insignificant as "it" and "its," and without these and similar aids, it can only be by good fortune that any progress can be made in the search for so small an object over so wide a field

§ 552 And now the neuter termination *-t* commands attention. Although, in the English language, it is found in three pronouns only, the form is an important one. In the Moeso-Gothic it pervades the whole inflection of adjectives, so that their neuters end in *-tu*, just as truly as the Latin neuters end in *-um*, or the Greek in *-ov*

<i>Masc</i>	<i>Fem</i>	<i>Neut</i>
Blind- <i>s</i> ,	blind- <i>a</i>	blind- <i>ata</i> ,

like

<i>Masc</i>	<i>Fem</i>	<i>Neut</i>
Cæc- <i>us</i> ,	cæc- <i>a</i> ,	cæc- <i>um</i>

In Norse, too, at the present moment, all neuters end in *-t* *skön*=*pulch-er*, *skönt*=*pulchr-um*. In the Modern High-German this *-t* becomes *-s*, M. *blind-er*, N *blind-es*. But it is the Latin *-d* in *i-d*, *illu-d*, *istu-d*—and, as such, a very old inflection. And now comes a fact which (whilst it justifies the importance and prominence given to the pronominal inflection, of which, in practice, this neuter in *-t* has been the characteristic,) shows us how in languages of the same order, a mere alteration in the distribution of certain inflections may effect a great change. There are two types of inflection in the way of Gender—one given by the Substantives, the other by the Pronouns. The Adjectives have none of their own. They take that of the Substantive, or the Pronoun, according to the language. The Latin Adjectives (along with the Greek) follow the Substantives, the result being *cæc-us*, *cæc-um*, like *domin-us*, *regn-um*. The German follow the Pronouns; the result being *blind-s*, *blind-ata*, like *who*, *what*.

CHAPTER XXII.

THE TRUE PERSONAL PRONOUNS

§ 553 THE true Personal Pronouns, as far as inflection is concerned, are, in *English*, $\sqrt{m-}$, $\sqrt{th-}$ and $\sqrt{y-}$. It is not safe to go more minutely into detail than this; though, roughly speaking, we may say that they are *me* (1st person), *thou* (2nd person singular), and *ye* (2nd person plural). They run thus.—

(1)			
<i>Sing</i>	Objective	.	<i>me</i>
	Possessive		<i>my</i>
<i>Plural</i>	Nominative	.	<i>we</i>
	Objective	.	<i>us</i>
	Possessive	.	<i>our</i>
(2)			
<i>Singular (only)</i>	Nominative		<i>thou</i>
	Objective		<i>thee</i>
	Possessive		<i>thy</i>
(3)			
<i>Plural (only)</i>	Nominative or Objective		<i>ye</i>
	Objective or Nominative		<i>you</i>
	Possessive		<i>your</i>

§ 554 The exact details of the difference between *me* and *my* are obscure. The A S gives *meġ* and *mei*, both Dative and Accusative rather than Possessive. The allied languages give

	<i>Dative</i>	<i>Accusative</i>
Masso-Gothic	<i>mis</i>	<i>mih</i>
" "	<i>pus</i>	<i>puh</i>
" "	<i>siz</i>	<i>sih</i>
Old High-German	<i>meſ</i>	<i>mih</i>
" "	<i>di</i>	<i>dih</i>
" "	"	<i>sih</i>
Old Norse	<i>mei</i>	<i>mih</i>
" "	<i>þer</i>	<i>þih</i>
" "	<i>ser</i>	<i>sih</i>
Middle H G	<i>mi</i>	<i>mih</i>
" "	<i>di</i>	<i>dih</i>
" "	"	<i>sih</i>

As far as the form in *-h* (*=h*) goes, this looks like Composition rather than Declension, the *-h* being the *-e* in *hi-e*, *hiv-e*, *ho-e*.

§ 555 That *we*, *our*, and *us* are etymologically allied, *i e* that they are forms of the same word rather than different words, is shown by the A S *user*=*our*, and by the Norse *vi* and *vor*=*we* and *our*. The evidence that they are connected with *me* is not so clear. The affinity, however, between the sounds of *m* and *w*, along with other phenomena, account for it.

For the double, or equivocal power of *ye* and *you*, as well as for the possibly Nominative power of *me*, and for *mine* and *thine*, see the Syntax.

§ 556 *Our-s*, *your-s* (also *their-s*), are cases of *our*, *your* (and *their*), *i e* each is a case upon a case. We may call them cases of *me*, *you* (and *their*) if we choose. They are, however, no samples of any Pronominal inflection, but, rather, *catachrestic* substantival forms.

CHAPTER XXIII

ON THE WORD *I*

§ 557. No notice has been taken of *I*. Nevertheless, in all the previous editions of the present work, as elsewhere, I have given it a place among the true personal pronouns. And, doubtless, its place is with *me* and *thee*. If *I* be not a personal pronoun,—a personal pronoun of the first person singular—what is it?

The foregoing chapter, however, treated not of personal pronouns in general, but of their declension, and *I* is undeclined. Is this a sufficient reason for excluding it,—for, apparently ignoring its very existence? In the present stage of our language *she* is undeclined yet *she* has been treated somewhat fully. To treat *I* as the nominative case of *me* would, of course, have been absurd, but why do I not say (as up to the present time *has* been said) that *I* was defective in the oblique cases, *me* in the nominative, and that they were complementary to one another? *Mutatis mutandis*, this is what was said of *he* and *she*; the former being defective in the nominative feminine, the latter defective in everything else. A partial answer to this is conveyed in the statement that *she* had once a declension; but that *I* never had one. But this is an under-statement. *I* is, to all appearances, something more than

a mere undeclined word in the present stage of the English language. It is something more than a word that has never been declined. It is a word essentially undeclinable. As a pronoun of the first person, it is the name of the speaker, whoever he (or *she*) may be—the name of the speaker speaking of himself. But such a speaker may be one of two things. He may be the object of some action from without; or he may be the originator of some action interior to, and proceeding from, himself. In other words, there may be a division of the Pronouns of the first person into two classes—(1) the Subjective; and (2) the Objective; the former being essentially Nominative. Now, in all the languages more especially akin to our own, and known by the name Indo-European, this difference exists. *i. e.* *I* is never a form of *me*. On the other hand, in the languages allied to the Fin, or Ugrian, it is always one.

	1	
Nominative . . .		<i>mina</i>
Infinitive . . .		<i>minua.</i>
Genitive . . .	:	<i>minun</i>
Inessive . . .		<i>minussa.</i>
Elativ		<i>minuhun.</i>
Illative . . .		<i>minuun</i>
	2.	
Nominative . . .	, .	<i>ben</i>
Genitive . . .		<i>benum.</i>
Dative . . .		<i>band.</i>
Accusative . . .		<i>beni</i>
Ablative		<i>benden.</i>

The first of these examples is from the Fin of Finland, the second from the Turkish.

CHAPTER XXIV.

INFLECTION OF SUBSTANTIVES.—THE PLURAL NUMBERS AND POSSESSIVE CASE IN *-s*.—DETAILS.

§ 558. THE A. S. Possessive *Singular* ended in *-es*; as *cyning*, *cyning-es*=*rex*, *reg-is*. The A. S. Nominative *Plural* ended in *-as*, as *cyning-as*=*reg-es*. The present English ejects the vowel, whether *e* or *a*, so reducing the two cases to the same form. It distinguishes them, however, in the *spelling*; inasmuch as we write *kings*=*reg-es*, but *king's*=*regis*.

§ 559 The Possessive *Plural*, in A. S., ended in *-a*; as

cyning-a = regum. The present English knows nothing of this form. It rarely forms a *real* Possessive Plural at all. When it does, it does so by adding the *-s* of the Singular to the Nominative Plural, as *ox-en, ox-ens*. But this is only done with those few words where the Nominative Plural does *not* already end in *-s*, *men, men's, brethren, brethren's; children, children-s*. This avoids such expressions as *the fatherses children, the sisterses brethren, the masterses men*. The difference, however, we indicate in *writing*.

<i>The father's children means the children of one father,</i> <i>The sister's brethren, the brethren of one sister,</i>	<i>The master's men, the men of one master,</i> <i>The owner's oxen, the oxen of one owner</i>
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But—

<i>The fathers' children means the children of different fathers,</i> <i>The sisters' brethren, the brethren of different sisters,</i>	<i>The masters' men, the men of different masters,</i> <i>The owners' oxen, the oxen of different owners</i>
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§ 560. To these preliminaries, add the following five rules of Euphony.

(1) Two mutes, one of which is surd and the other sonant, coming together in the same syllable, cannot be pronounced.

(2) A surd mute, immediately preceded by a sonant one, is changed into its sonant equivalent.

(3) A sonant mute, immediately preceded by a surd one, is changed into its sonant equivalent.

(4) In certain cases, a vowel or a liquid has the same effect upon the surd letter *s*, as a sonant mute.

<i>Hills</i> is pronounced <i>hillz</i> .		
<i>Stems</i>	—	<i>stemz</i> .
<i>Horns</i>	—	<i>hornz</i>
<i>Stars</i>	—	<i>starz</i> .
<i>Boys</i>	—	<i>boyz</i>

(5) When two identical or cognate sounds come together in the same syllable, they must be separated from each other by the insertion of the sound of the *e* in *bed—loss, loss-es; blaze, blaze-es*. Here we must remember, not only that *z, zh, and sh* comport themselves as *-s*, but that the *-ch* in *church, &c.*, and *-ge* in *judge, &c.*, are really *tsh* and *dzh*, whence *church-es, judy-es, &c.* In *monarch, &c.*, the *ch* is not *tsh* but *k (x)*, the plural being *monarchs*.

§ 561. All this being borne in mind, the formation of our Plurals is very regular, the apparent anomalies being chiefly points of spelling, like *cargoes*, *beauties*, &c, from *cargo* and *beauty*

§ 562 A few, however, are something more Thus—
The plural of—

wife	is not	wives *	but	wives †
loaf	—	loafs	—	loaves
knife	—	knives	—	knives
half	—	halts	—	halves
life	—	lives	—	lives
leaf	—	leafs	—	leaves
calf	—	calfs	—	calves

Respecting these words we may observe—(1.) That the vowel before *f* is *long*; (2.) that they are all of Anglo-Saxon origin. Putting these two facts together, we can use more general language, and say that—When a word ends in the sound of *f*, preceded by a long vowel, and is of Anglo-Saxon origin, the plural is formed by the addition of the sound of the *z* in *zeal*

To this rule there are two exceptions

1 *Dwarf*, a word of Anglo-Saxon origin, but which forms its plural by means of the sound of *s*—*dwarfs* (pronounced *dwarfsee*).

2 *Beef*; a word *not* of Anglo-Saxon origin, but which forms its plural by means of the sound of *z*—*beevs* (pronounced *beevz*)

§ 563 If we ask the reason of this peculiarity in the formation of the plurals of these words in *-f*, we shall find reason to believe that it lies with the singular rather than with plural forms. In Anglo-Saxon, *f* at the end of a word was, probably, sounded as *v*; and it is likely that the original *singulars* were sounded *loav*, *halv*, *wive*, *calv*, *leav*. In the Swedish language the letter *f* has the sound of *v*; so that *staf* is sounded *stav*. Again, in the allied languages the words in question end in the *sonant* (not the *surd*) mute,—*weib*, *laub*, *calb*, *halb*, *stab*, &c = *wife*, *leaf*, *calf*, *half*, *stuff*. Hence the *plural* is probably normal, it being the *singular* form on which the irregularity lies

§ 564 *Pence*—A contracted form from *pennies*; and collective rather than plural *Sixpence*, compared with *sixpences*, is no plural, but a singular form.

Dice—This distinguishes *dice* for play from *dies* (*dies*) for

* As it written *uſce*, &c

† As it written *vſe*, &c

coining *Dice*, perhaps, like *pence*, is collective rather than plural

Eaves —In A S *efese* so that *-s* belongs to the root

Alms —In Anglo-Saxon *almesse*

Riches.—Most writers say, *riches* are *useful*; in which case the word *riches* is plural. Still there are a few who say, *riches* is *useful*; in which case the word *riches* is singular. The *-s* is no sign of the plural number, since there is no such *substantive* as *rich*; on the contrary, it is part of the original singular, like the *-s* in *distress*. Notwithstanding this, we cannot say *richesses* in the same way that we can say *distresses*. Hence the word *riches* is, in respect to its original form, singular, in respect to its meaning, either singular or plural—most frequently the latter

News—Some say, *this news* is *good*, in which case the word *news* is singular. More rarely we find the expression *these news* are *good*; in which case the word *news* is plural. Now in the word *news* the *-s* (unlike the *-s* in *alms* and *riches*) is no part of the original singular, but the sign of the plural, like the *-s* in *trees*. Notwithstanding this, we cannot subtract the *s*, and say *new*, in the same way that we can form *tree* from *trees*. Hence the word *news* is, in respect to its original form, plural, in respect to its meaning, either singular or plural, most frequently the former

Means—Some say, *these means* are *useful*, in which case the word *means* is plural. Others say, *this means* is *useful*; in which case the word *means* is singular. Now in the word *means* the *-s* (unlike the *s* in *alms* and *riches*, but like the *s* in *news*) is no part of the original singular, but the sign of the plural like the *s* in *trees*. The form in the original French, from which language the word is derived, is *moyen*, singular; *moyens*, plural. If we subtract from the word *means* the letter *s*, we say *mean*. Now as a singular form of the word *means*, with the sense it has in the phrase *ways and means*, there is, in the current English, no such word as *mean*, any more than there is such a word as *new* from *news*. But, in a different sense, there is the singular form *mean*; as in the phrase *the golden mean*, meaning *middle course*. Hence the word *means* is, in respect to its form, plural, in respect to its meaning, either singular or plural

Pains—Some say, *these pains* are *well-taken*. in which case the word *pains* is plural. Others say, *this pains* is *well-taken*;

in which case the word *pains* is singular. The form in the original French, from which language the word is derived, is *peine*. The reasoning that has been applied to the word *means* is closely applicable to the word *pains*.

The same also applies to the word *amends*. The form in French is *amende*, without the *s*.

§ 565. *Mathematics, metaphysics, politics, ethics, optics, physics.*—All the words in point are of Greek origin, and all are derived from a Greek adjective. Each is the name of some department of study, of some art, or of some science. As the words are Greek, so also are the sciences which they denote either of Greek origin, or else such as flourished in Greece. Let the arts and sciences of Greece be expressed, in Greek, by a substantive and an adjective combined, rather than by a simple substantive; for instance, let it be the habit of the language to say the *musical art* rather than *music*. Let the Greek for *art* be a word in the feminine gender; e.g. τέχνη (*tekhne*), so that the *musical art* be ἡ μουσική τέχνη (*he mousikē tekhnē*). Let, in the progress of language (as was actually the case in Greece), the article and substantive be omitted, so that, for the *musical art*, or for *music*, there stand only the feminine adjective, μουσική. Let there be, upon a given art or science, a series of books, or treatises; the Greek for *book*, or *treatise*, being a neuter substantive, βιβλίον (*biblion*). Let the substantive meaning *treatise* be, in the course of language, omitted, so that whilst the science of *physics* is called φυσική (*fysikē*) from ἡ φυσική τέχνη, a series of treatises upon the science shall be called φύσικη (*fysika*) or *physics*. Now all this is what happened in Greece. The science was denoted by a feminine adjective singular, as φύσικη (*fysikē*), and the treatises upon it by the neuter adjective plural, as φύσικα (*fysika*). I conceive, then, that, in the Middle Ages, a science of Greek origin might have its name drawn from two sources, viz from the name of the art or science, or from the name of the books wherein it was treated. In the first case it had a singular form as *physic, logic*; in the second, a plural, as *mathematics, metaphysics, optics*.

CHAPTER XXV.

ADJECTIVES —AT PRESENT UNDECLINED —ORIGINALLY
DECLINED

§ 566 At the present time, the English adjective is wholly destitute of Inflection In A S. it was not only declined, but it had two declensions, one Indefinite, and one Definite The former ran thus. —

	<i>Singular</i>		
	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
<i>Nominative.</i>	God	God	God
<i>Accusative</i>	Godne	Góde	Gól
<i>Ablative</i>	Gode	Gódie	Gode
<i>Dative</i>	Gódum	Gódie	Godum .
<i>Genitive</i>	Gódes	Gódie	Godes

	<i>Plural</i>		
	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	Gode	Gode	Góde
<i>Accusative</i>	Gode	Gode	Góde
<i>Ablative.</i>	Godum	Godum	Godum
<i>Dative</i>	Gódum	Gódum	Godum
<i>Genitive.</i>	Gódia	Gódra	Godia.

The Definite Declension, which was used when the Adjective was preceded by either the Definite article or a Demonstrative Pronoun, was characterized by the predominance of the forms in -n. Thus :—

	<i>Singular</i>		
	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	Gode	Góda	Góde
<i>Accusative</i>	Godan	Gódan	Gódan
<i>Ablative</i>	Godan	Gódan	Godan
<i>Dative</i>	Godan	Gódan	Godan
<i>Genitive.</i>	Gódan	Gódan	Godan

	<i>Plural.</i>		
	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Neuter.</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	Gódan	Gódan	Gódan
<i>Accusative.</i>	Gódan	Gódan	Gódan
<i>Ablative</i>	Gódum	Gódum	Gódum
<i>Dative.</i>	Gódum	Gódum	Gódum
<i>Genitive.</i>	Godena	Gódena	Gódena.

The Declension of the Participle was, in the main, that of the Adjective.

Plural			
	Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.
Nominative.	Bæinand	Bæinand	Bæinand
Accusative.	Bæinandne	Bæinande	Bæinand
Ablative.	Bæinande	Bæinandie	Bæinande
Dative	Bæinandum	Bæinandie	Bæinandum
Genitive	Bæinandes	Bæinandie	Bæinandes

Singular.			
	Masculine.	Feminine	Neuter.
Nominative.	Bæinande	Bæinande	Bæinande
Accusative.	Bæinande	Bæinande	Bæinande
Ablative	Bæinandum	Bæinandum	Bæinandum
* Dative	Bæinandum	Bæinandum	Bæinandum
Genitive	Bæinandia	Bæinandia	Bæinandia.

§ 567. This fulness of inflection of both the Adjective and the Participle, during the Anglo-Saxon period, contrasts with the utter absence of declension at the present moment, and may serve as an illustration of what we may call *virtual*, as opposed to *actual*, inflections. An adjective agreeing with a substantive, denoting a male, is *virtually* in the masculine gender, inasmuch as, if there were such a thing, at the present time as the sign of gender, it would take that of the masculine. It really did this in an earlier stage of the language. The same applies to the questions of Number and Case. Adjectives agreeing with Substantives in the Plural Number or the Possessive Case are *virtually* Possessive and Plural Adjectives. The same applies to Participles.

Old English examples (from DR. GUEST) of the Plural forms of Adjectives

1. In these lay a gret multitude of *syke* men, *blinde*, *coked*, and *diye* — WYCLIFFE, John v.

2. In all the ordors foure is none that can
So much of dalliance and faine language,
He hadde ymade ful many a marriage—
His tippet was ay faised ful of knives,
And punnes for to given *fawe* wives.

CHAUCER, *Prol*

3. And *al* the cuntre of Judee wente out to him, and *alle* men of Jerusalem. — WYCLIFFE, Mark 1

4. He ghyueth hi to *alle* men, and biething, and *alle* thingis, and made of von *al* kynde of men to inhabit on *al* the face of the erthe. — WYCLIFFE, Dedes of Apostles, xvii.

- 5 That fadres sone which *alle* thinges wrought,
And *all*, that wrought is with a skilful thought,
The Gost that from the fader gan procede,
Hath soulded hem.

CHAUCER, *The Second Nonnes Tale*

6. And *alle* we that ben in this may
And maken *all* this lamentation,
We losten *alle* our husbondes at that toun

CHAUCER. *The Knightes Tale*

7. A *good* man byngeth forth *gode* thingis of *good* tresore.—WYCLIFFE, Matt vii

8 So every *good* tree maketh *gode* fruytis, but an yvel tree maketh yvel fruytes. A *good* tree may not make yvel fruytis, neither an yvel tree may make *gode* fruytis. Every tree that maketh not *good* fruyt schal be cut down.—WYCLIFFE, Matt. vii.

9. Men loveden more darknessis than light for hei weikes weren *yele*, for ech man that doeth *yele*, hateth the light —WYCLIFFE, John iii.

CHAPTER XXVI.

VERBS —FORMATION OF THE PAST TENSE —CHANGE OF VOWEL

§ 568. THE verbs fall into two divisions In the first the Past Tense is formed by changing the vowel, as *speak*, *spoke*. In the second it is formed by adding the sound of *-ed*, *-t*, or *-t*, as *plant-ed*, *move-t*, *wept*

§ 569 The chief words which form the past tense by changing the vowel are—

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>
(Vowel e.)	
Fall	tell
Hold	held
Draw	drew
Slay	slew
Fly	flew
Blow	blew
Crow	crew
Know	knew
Grow	grew.

(Vowel oo)	
Shake	shook
Take	took
For-sake	for-sook

Two forms, one, marked with an asterisk (*), obsolete

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>	
rise	rose	ris
smite	smote	smit
ride	rode	rid
stride	strode	staid
slide	slode	slid
chide	chode	chud
drive	drove	driv
thrive	throve	thriv
write	wrote	writ
sit	*slat	sit
bite	*bat	bit
swim	swam	swum
begin	began	begun
spin	span	spun
sing	sang	sung
spring	spring	spring
sting	*stang	stung
ring	*rang	rung
wring	*wring	wrung
fling	*flang	flung
cling	*clang	clung
string	*string	strung
slung	slung	slung
sunk	sank	sunk
drunk	drank	drunk
shunk	shrank	shunk
stick	*stack	stuck
burst	*barst	burst
bind	*band	bound
find	*fand	found
grind	*grand	ground
wind	*wand	wound

For *barst* we occasionally find *brast* The forms like *fand* are chiefly Scotch.

§ 570. In A. S., many words which now form their past tense in *-ed*, *-d*, or *-t*, formed it by the change of vowel.

<i>Present</i>	<i>Existing Past</i>	<i>A S Past.</i>
Wreak	Wreaked	Wiæc
Fret	Fretted	Fiæt
Mete	Meted	Mæt
Shear	Sheard	Scear
Braid	Braided	Bræd
Knead	Kneaded	Cnæd
Dicad	Dicaded	Dicd
Sleep	Slept	Slep

<i>Present</i>	<i>Existing Past</i>	<i>A S Past</i>
Fold	Folded	Feold
Wield	Wielded	Weold
Wax	Waxed	Weox
Leap	Leapt	Hleop
Sweep	Swept	Swcep
Weep	Wept	Weop
Sow	Sowed	Seow
Bake	Baked	Bók
Gnaw	Gnawed	Gnóh
Laugh	Laughed	Hlóh
Wade	Waded	Wól
Lade	Laded	Hlólh
Grave	Graved	Gróf
Shave	Shaved	Seóf
Step	Stepped	Stóp
Wash	Washed	Wóes
Bellow	Bellowed	Bealh
Swallow	Swallowed	Swcalli
Mourn	Mourned	Meann
Spurn	Spurned	Speann
Carve	Carved	Ceant
Starve	Starved	Stawf
Thresh	Threshed	Thaese
Hew	Hewed	Hceow
Flow	Flowed	Fleow
Row	Rowed	Reow
Creep	Crept	Creap
Dive	Dived	Deát
Shove	Shoved	Seceáf
Chew	Chewed	Ceáw
Brew	Brewed	Breáw
Lock	Locked	Leáe
Suck	Sucked	Seáe
Reck	Recked	Reáe
Smoke	Smoked	Smeáe
Bow	Bowed	Beah
Lie	Lied	Leáh
Gripe	Gripped	Gráp
Span	Spanned	Spén
Eked	Eked	Eóc
Fared	Fared	Fór

§ 571. *Origin of the forms resulting from a change of vowel.*—In the Mæso-Gothic, the verbs in six out of the twelve classes, over which, in that language, they are distributed, form the past tense by the reduplication of the initial consonant. In the last two there is a change of vowel as well.

Present	Past	
<i>Salta</i>	<i>salsalt</i>	<i>leapt</i>
<i>Háita</i>	<i>hahait</i>	<i>called</i>
<i>Ilaupta</i>	<i>hláiláup</i>	<i>ran</i>
<i>Slepta</i>	<i>sáuslep</i>	<i>slept</i>
<i>Laua</i>	<i>laulö</i>	<i>laughed</i>
<i>Chéta</i>	<i>gáigpót</i>	<i>wept</i>

It is not only believed that the past forms of the existing English have grown out of these reduplicate præterites, but that, in two words, the reduplication still exists

1. In *did* from *do=facio*, with its participle *done*, the final *-d* is not the same as the *-d* in *moved*. What is it? There are good grounds for believing that it is an instance of this same old *reduplicate præterite* now under notice. If so, it is the latter *d* which is radical, and the former which is inflectional.

2 The following couplet from Dryden's *Mac Fleenoe* exhibits a form as well as a construction which requires explanation

An ancient fabrie, rais'd t' inform the sight,
There stood of yore, and Barbican *it hight*

Here the word *hight*=*was called*, and seems to present an instance of the participle being used in the passive sense without the so-called verb substantive. Yet it does no such thing. The word is no participle at all; but a simple præterite. Certain verbs are *naturally* either passive or active, as one of two allied meanings may predominate. *To be called* is passive, so is, *to be beaten*. But *to bear as a name* is active; so is, *to take a beating*. The word *hight* is in the same class of verbs with the Latin *vapulo*, and it is the same as the Latin word, *cluo*. *Barbican cluit*=*Barbican auduit*=*Barbican it hight*. So much for the question as to the construction, which is properly a point of syntax rather than etymology. In respect to the form it must be observed that the *t* is no sign of the præterite tense, but, on the contrary, a part of the original word, which is, in German, *heiss-en*, in Norse, *het-a*, and *heil-e*. In A S this præterite was *heht*, and as the M. G. was *hārhait*, the form has been looked upon as reduplicate. Whatever may be its origin, the present spelling is inaccurate. The *g* has no business where it is; it being only the false analogy of the words *high* and *height* that has introduced it.

§ 572 That this reduplication is the reduplication of the

Greek words like *τέ-τυφα*, and the Latin ones like *no-morēi*, is generally admitted. Such being the case, the words like *sāisalt* are, in respect to their history, neither more nor less than Perfects.

§ 573 A line of criticism is suggested by them, which, though it lies in the back-ground, is important, not so much, however, in its results as in its moral. It reads us a lesson against over-hasty generalization. Few persons believe that the change of vowel is spontaneous, *i. e.* that it came of itself, independent of anything which either preceded or followed it. On the contrary, it is reasonably believed that changes of vowel are, as a general rule, secondary processes. Seeing no reason for believing that they are *never* primary, I agree with my predecessors on this point, in the main. The only question, then, that now remains, is the *direction* of the influence. In *rather*, from *hvaðor*, it is clear that the influence has been *retrogressive*, in other words, that the affix has acted on what went before it. The converse, however, was possible, and a state of things is imaginable in which it shall be the first of two vowels which shall determine the character of the second, in which case the direction would be forwards rather than backwards, and the action of the vowel *progressive*. With this alternative as a philological possibility, it is easy to see that a generalization of a wide kind is also possible. It may be that certain languages—nay, certain classes of languages—are characterized by the difference of the direction of the action of their constituent sounds; some giving a progressive, some a retrogressive, system of accommodation. It may now be added that this is no supposition, but, to a great extent, a reality. In the German languages the direction is retrogressive rather than progressive. In the languages allied to the Fin and Turkish, the direction is progressive, rather than retrogressive. Such is the rule in the main. but that it is not a rule absolute may be seen in the words under notice. The influence which changed *grela* into *gaigrot* is certainly progressive. For a German language, however, the *progress* is an exceptionable phenomenon; though the converse is the exception in the Fin and Turk.

CHAPTER XXVII.

FORMATION OF THE PAST TENSE.—ADDITION OF *-ED*, *-D*,
OR *-T*.

§ 574 THE current statement that the syllable *-ed*, rather than the letter *-d*, is the sign of the præterite tense, is true only in regard to the written language. In *stabbed*, *moved*, *bragged*, *whizzed*, *judged*, *filled*, *slurred*, *slammed*, *shunned*, *barred*, *strewn*, the *e* is a point of spelling only, for in *language* (except in declamation) there is no second vowel sound. The *-d* comes in immediate contact with the final letter of the original word, and the number of syllables remains the same as it was before.

When however, the original words ends in *-d* or *-t*, as *slight* or *brand*, then, and then only (and that not always), is there the addition of the syllable *-ed*, as in *slight^{ed}*, *brand^{ed}*. This is necessary, since the combinations *slightt* and *brandd*, are unpronounceable.

Whether the addition be *-d*, or *-t* depends upon the sonancy or surdness of the preceding letter. After, *b*, *v*, *th* (as in *clothe*), *g*, or *z*, the addition is *-d*. This is a matter of necessity. We say *stab^d*, *mōv^d*, *clōth^d*, *bragg^d*, *whizz^d*, because *stabt*, *mōvt*, *clōtht*, *braggt*, *whizzt*, are unpronounceable. After *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, *w*, *y*, or a vowel, the addition is also *-d*. This is no matter of necessity, but simply the *habit* of the English language. *Filt*, *slurt*, *strayt*, &c. are as pronounceable as *fill^d*, *slurr^d*, *stray^d*, &c. It is the habit, however, of the English language to prefer the latter forms.

§ 575. The verbs of this class fall into three sections. In the first there is the simple addition of *-d*, *-t*, or *-ed*.

Seive	served	Dip	dipped (<i>dɪpt</i>)
Cry	cried	Slip	slipped (<i>slipt</i>)
Betray	betrayed	Step	stepped (<i>stept</i>)
Expel	expelled	Look	looked (<i>looht</i>)
Accuse	accused	Pluck	plucked (<i>plucht</i>)
Instruct	instructed	Toss	tossed (<i>tost</i>)
Invite	invited	Push	pushed (<i>pusht</i>)
Waste	wasted	Confess	confessed (<i>confest</i>)

§ 576. In the second, besides the addition of *-t* or *-d*, the vowel is *shortened*. It also contains those words which end in *-d*, or *-t*, and at the same time have a short vowel in the præterite. Such, amongst others, are *cut*, *cost*, &c., where the two tenses are

alike, and *bend, rend, &c.*, where the præterite is formed from the present by changing *-d* into *-t*, as *bent, rent, &c.*

§ 577 In the third, the vowel is *changed*

Tell	told	Seil	sold
Will	would	Shall	should

§ 578. To this group belong the remarkable præterites of the verbs *seek, beseech, catch, teach, bring, think*, and *buy*, viz *sought, besought, caught, taught, brought, thought, and bought*. In all these, the final consonant is either *g* or *h*, or else a sound allied to those mutes. When the tendency of these to become *h* and *y*, as well as to undergo further changes, is remembered, the forms in point cease to seem anomalous. In *wrought*, from *work*, there is a transposition. In *laid* and *said* the present forms make a show of regularity which they have not. The true original forms should be *legde* and *seigde*, the infinitives being *leggan, seggan*. In these words the *i* represents the semi-vowel *y*, into which the original *g* was changed. The Anglo-Saxon forms of the other words are as follows —

Byegan	bohte	Þungan	bióhte
Secan	sohte	þencan	þohte
Wyrcan	wóhte		

§ 579 Out of the three groups into which the Verbs under notice in Anglo-Saxon are divided, only one takes a vowel before the *d* or *t*. The other two add the syllables *-te*, or *-de*, to the last letter of the original word. The vowel that, in one out of the three Anglo-Saxon classes, precedes *d* is *o*. Thus we have *lufian, lufode, clyppian, clyppode*. In the other two classes the forms are respectively *bernan, bernde, and tellan, tealde*; no vowel being inserted.

§ 580 In the present English, with several verbs there is the actual addition of the syllable *-ed*, in other words, *d* is separated from the last letter of the original word by the addition of a vowel, as *ended, instructed, &c.*

In several verbs the final *-d* is changed into *-t*, as *bend, bent; rend, rent; send, sent; gild, gilt; build, built; spend, spent; &c.*

Herein we see a series of expedients for separating the præterite form from the present, when the root ends with the same sound with which the affix begins.

The change from a long vowel to a short one, as in *feed, fed*,

&c, can only take place where there is a long vowel to be changed

Where the vowels are short, and, at the same time, the word ends in *d*, the *d* of the present may become *t* in the præterite. Such is the case with *bend*, *bent*.

Where there is no long vowel to shorten, and no *d* to change into *t*, the two tenses (unless we add *ed*), of necessity, remain alike. Such is the case with *cut*, *cost*, &c, &c

§ 581 With forms like *fed* and *led* we are in doubt as to the class. This doubt we have three means of settling.

1. *By the form of the participle*—The *en* in *beaten* shows that the word *beat* is in the same class as *spoke*

2. *By the nature of the Vowel*—If *beat* were conjugated like *read*, its præterite would be *bet*.

3. *By a knowledge of the older forms*—The A S is *beáte*, *beot*. There is no such a form as *beáte*, *bette*. The præterite of *sendan* is *sende*. There is in A S no such form as *sand*.

§ 582. Certain so-called irregularities may now be noticed.

Made, *had*—In these words there is nothing remarkable but the ejection of a consonant. The Anglo-Saxon forms are *ma-code* and *hafle*, respectively.

Would, *should*, *could*—It must not be imagined that *could* is in the same predicament with these words. In *will* and *shall* the *-l* is part of the original word. This is not the case with *can*.

Yode.—Instead of *goed*, a regular præterite from *go*, now obsolete, and replaced by *went*, the præterite of *wend*,—*he wends his way*—*he went his way*. Except that the initial *y* has become *y*, and the *e* follows instead of preceding the *d* (a mere point of spelling), there is nothing peculiar in this word.

For *aught*, *minded*, and *did*, see the following chapters.

§ 583. The origin of the form in *-d* is considered, by Grimm and others, to be in the word *do*, of which the præterite is *d-d*. The Mæso-Gothic, in the Dual and Plural of the Indicative, and in all the persons of the Conjunctive Mood, gives us the form in full, *i. e.* the two *d*'s. Having noted this, note also, the existence of expressions like *we did speak*, *we did write*, and the like, and the plausibility of the suggestion will become apparent.

Note, too, the greater antiquity of the reduplicate forms, inasmuch as before *did* could be attached to such a root as *nas-*, it would, itself, have been deduced from *do*.

INDICATIVE		
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Dual</i>	<i>Plural</i>
(1) nasida	—————	nasidêdum
(2) nasides	nasideduts	nasidedup
(3) nasida	—————	nasidedum
CONJUNCTIVE		
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Dual</i>	<i>Plural</i>
(1) nasidêdjan	—————	nasidêdenma
(2) nasidêdeis	nasidêdeis	nasidêdeip
(3) nasidêdi	—————	nasidêdena

§ 584 Some remarks, however, of Dr Trithen on the Slavonic præterite, induce me to entertain a different doctrine, and to identify the *-d* under notice with the *-t* of the passive participles of the Latin language, as found in *mon-ît-us*, *voc-at-us*, *rap-t-us*, and probably in the Greek forms like *τυφ-θ-ε-ίς*

1 The Slavonic præterite is commonly said to possess genders : in other words, there is one form for speaking of a past action when done by a male, and another for speaking of a past action when done by a female

2 These forms are identical with those of the participles, masculine and feminine, as the case may be Indeed the præterite is a participle If, instead of saying *ille amavit*, the Latins said *ille amatus*, whilst, instead of saying *illa amavit*, they said *illa amata*, they would exactly use the grammar of the Slavonic.

3 Hence, as one class of languages, at least, gives us the undoubted fact of an active præterite being identical with a passive participle, and as the participle and præterite in question are nearly identical, we have a fair reason for believing that the *d*, in the English active præterite, is the *d* of the participle, which, in its turn, is the *t* of the Latin passive participle.

CHAPTER XXVIII

ON IRREGULARITY AND DEFECT

§ 585 WHATEVER the verbs which form the Past Tense by changing the vowel may be, they are anything but *Irregular*—though they are often treated as if they were *Irregular*, however, is a word which we should use as seldom as possible The better the grammarian the fewer the irregularities of his grammar If it were not so, the phenomena of language would scarcely be worth studying It is evident, however, that it is

in the power of the grammarian to raise the number of etymological irregularities to any amount, by narrowing the definition of the word irregular, in other words, by framing an exclusive rule. The current rule of the common grammarians is, that the preterite is formed *by the addition of -t or -d, or -ed*. Now this position is sufficiently exclusive; since it proscribes not only the whole class of verbs, like *spoke*, but also words like *bent* and *sent*, where *-t* exists, but where it does not exist as an addition. The regular forms, it may be said, should be *bended* and *sended*. Exclusive, however, as the rule in question is, it is plain that it might be made more so. The regular forms might, by the fiat of a rule, be restricted to those in *-d*. In this case, words like *wept* and *burnt* would be added to the already numerous list of irregulars. Finally, a further limitation might be made, by laying down as a rule that no word was regular, unless it ended in *-ed*.

§ 586 Thus much concerning the modes of making rules exclusive, and, consequently, of raising the amount of irregularities—the last art that the philosophic grammarian is ambitious of acquiring. True etymology reduces irregularity by making the rules of grammar not exclusive, but general. The *quantum* of irregularity is in the inverse proportion to the generality of our rules. In language itself there is no irregularity. The word itself is only another name for our ignorance of the processes that change words. The nearest approach to a true Irregularity in the English language is to be found in the word *could*, from *can*; where the *l* is wholly inorganic, being foreign to the root, and only introduced to match the *l* in *should* and *would*. But even here it is not sounded: so that the Irregularity, such as it is, is an Irregularity of spelling rather than speaking.

§ 587. *Quoth* is Defective,—only, however, in the present stage of our language. The A. S. present was *cweðe*, existing, at the present moment, in the compound word *bequeathe*.

CHAPTER XXIX

STRONG AND WEAK VERBS—SO-CALLED

§ 588. In claiming for the forms like *spoke*, their due amount of regularity, we improve upon the grammarians of the last cen-

tury. The exact import, however, of the two classes has yet to be determined. The German philologues make out of the two classes two different Conjugations, one of which is called *Strong*, the other *Weak*. The words like *spoke* are strong, because they are formed from their present tenses by a merely internal change, *i e* a change of the vowel—no new element being added. Meanwhile, *called*, and its fellows, require the addition of a totally new sound—that of *-d*, *-t*, or *-ed*, as the case may be; this being, somewhat fancifully, treated, as a sign of debility. That these classes, however, (call them what we will,) are natural is beyond a doubt.

(a) The so-called Strong Verbs are of English, and few, or none, of foreign, origin.

(b) Strong words (so-called) become weak. Weak words (so-called) do *not* become strong. Hence, the later the stage of a given language, the fewer are the strong forms. Then, as the provincial dialects retain many archaisms, it is only natural to expect that they will partially agree with the A. S. rather than the modern English. Hence, if we find (as we actually do), instead of (say) *leapt*, *slept*, *moved*, *snowed*, &c. such forms as *lep*, *slep*, *mew*, *snew*, it is no more than we expect.

(c) The verbs which are strong in any one of the German languages are generally so in all the rest.

(d) Derived words are weak rather than strong. The intransitive forms *drink* and *lie*, are strong; the transitive forms *drench* and *lay*, are weak.

(e) No new word forms its past tense by a change of vowel. One of our earliest Norman-French verbs is *adoubet* = *dubb*. Its past tense is *dubb-ade*.

§ 589. That these classes are natural is beyond a doubt; in other words, there is no doubt as to their being genuine classes—classes of some sort or other. This was recognized as early as the time of Ben Jonson, who, unlike the majority of his followers, was unwilling to see irregularity where irregularity had no real existence. So far, indeed, as he saw it at all, he saw it on the side of the form in *-d*, which he called a “common inn to lodge every strange and foreign guest,” hereby using a metaphor which shows how clearly he had seen the extent to which the one process was current, the other obsolete. In regard to the class under notice he writes—

“That which followeth, for any thing I can find (though I have with some diligence searched after it), entertaineth none but natural and homeborn

words, which, though in number they be not many, a hundred and twenty, or thereabouts, yet in variation are so divers and uncertain that they need much the stamp of some good logic to beat them into proportion. We have set down that, that in our judgement agreeth best with reason and good order Which notwithstanding, if it seem to any to be too rough hewed, let him plann it out more smoothly, and I shall not only not envy it, but, in the behalf of my country, most heartily thank him for so great a benefit, hoping that I shall be thought sufficiently to have done my part, if, in tolling this bell, I may draw others to a deeper consideration of the matter for, touching myself, I must needs confess, that after much painful churning, this only would come "

The bell, however, was tolled in vain. Wallis demurred to his doctrine, having devoted a special chapter to the consideration of what he called the *Verba anomalia*

De Verbis Anomalis

Restat ut de Verborum aliquot Anomalia pauca tradam De quibus hæc duo punitus monenda sunt

1 Tota quæ sequitur Anomalia non nisi præteriti Imperfecti temporis, et Participi Passivi formationem spectat. Nam in ipsis quidem Verbis Irregularibus nihil aliud irregulare est

2 Tota illa quantacunque Anomalia, Verba Exotica vix omnino attingit, sed illa solo quæ Nativa sunt — Exotica vero illa appello quæ a Latinis, Gallicis, Italicis, Hispanicis, aut etiam Cambio-Britannicis deduximus, quæ quidem multa sunt Nativa vero illa voco quæ ab antiqua lingua Teutonica, seu Saxonica, originem ducunt, quæ quidem omnia sunt Monosyllaba (aut saltem a Monosyllabis deducta), et plerumque nobis cum Germanis, Belgis, Danis, etc communia sunt (levi saltem immutatione facta), quorum nempe sive Linguae sive Dialectus ejusdem cum nostra Anglicana sunt originis

Anomalia prima, quæ maxime generalis est, ex celeritate pronuntiandi originem duxit nempe (post syncopen vocalis *e* in regulari terminatione *ed*), relicta consona *d* sæpissime mutatur in *t*, quoties scilicet pronuntiatio sic evadit expeditior (et quidem contractio potius dicenda videtur, quam Anomalia)

Anomalia secunda etiam frequens est, sed solummodo Participium Passivum spectat. Nempe Participium Passivum olim sæpissime formabatur in *en* Cujusmodi satis multa adhuc retinemus, præsertim ubi Præteritum Imperfectum insignem aliquam anomalam patitur (atque hæc quidem Altera Participi Formatio, potius quam Anomalia, non incommode dici potest)

Sunt et Aliæ Anomaliæ non paucæ, præsertim in Præterito Imperfecto, sed quæ magis speciales sunt, nec quidem adeo multæ quam ut possint sigillatim recenseri

He notices, however, the fact of the so-called Irregulars being exclusively English.

Hickes, after giving a single conjugation for the Anglo-Saxon verbs, throws the rest into a single class, with the remark, however, that they follow a principle of their own, along with the additional suggestion that *forsan magis proprie secundam con-*

jugationem constituere videantur quam inter anomaliam recenser. Little, however, came of this until lately. In a paper upon certain tenses attributed to the Greek verb, in the *Philological Museum*,* it is argued that the so-called second aorist and second future are in the same category with the so-called English Irregulars.

We may find a satisfactory illustration of this matter in our own language. In English also there are two originally distinct modes of forming the common past tense—the first by adding the syllable *ed*, as in *I killed* the other, chiefly by certain changes in the vowels, as in *I wrote, I saw, I knew, I ran*, and many others. Let the reader call the former and regular form the first aorist, and the latter the second, and he will have a correct idea of the amount of the distinction between those tenses in Greek. The form *ἔτυψα* in Greek is what *I killed* is in English, that is, the regular form of the past tense, which obtains in the vast majority of verbs—the form *ἔλαβον*, on the other hand, is altogether analogous to *I took*, or *I saw*, acknowledged by all grammarians not as a second or distinct preterite, but as an instance of irregular variety of formation obtaining in certain verbs.

But some will probably deem it an objection to the view here taken that there are verbs in Greek,—many, they perhaps suppose,—in which both forms of the aorist are in use together. I admit that a few instances of this kind do occur, but even in this point we shall find that the analogy with our own language still holds good. Without rummaging in old authors, we meet with many instances in which English verbs retain both forms of the preterite. Thus, for example, we may say, *I hanged*, or *I hung*, *I chid*, or *I chode*, *I spit*, or *I spat*, *I climbed*, or *I clomb*, *I awaked*, or *I awoke*, *I cleft*, *I clure*, or *I clore*, and a score of others. Except in their greater abundance, wherein do these differ from the analogous duplicate forms of the Greek aorist, such as *ἔκτεινα* and *ἔκρανον*, *I killed*, *ἔτυψα* and *ἔτυπον*, *I struck*, *ἐθάμβησα* and *ἔταφον*, *I was astonished*? Such duplicates in Greek are extremely rare—probably there is not one Greek verb in five hundred in which they can be met with. The form improperly called the second aorist is, indeed, common enough, but then, where it exists that of the first aorist is almost always wanting. We have *εἶπον*, *ἔλαβον*, *εἶδον*, *ἤγαγον*, *ἔλειπον*, *ἔδραμον*, but the regular form is as much a nonentity in these verbs, as it is in the English verbs *I found*, *I took*, *I saw*, *I led*, *I left*, *I ran*. The first aorist in these would be sheer vulgarity, it would be parallel to *I finded*, *I tuked*, *I seed*.

Now if the circumstances of the Greek and English, in regard to these two tenses, are so precisely parallel, a simple and obvious inquiry arises. Which are in the right, the Greek Grammarians or our own? For either ours must be wrong in not having fitted up for our verb the framework of a first and second preterite, teaching the pupils to say first pret. *I finded*, 2nd pret. *I found*, 1st pret. *I ghided*, 2nd pret. *I glode*, or the others must be so in teaching the learner to imagine two aorists for *εὐρίσκω*, as aor. 1. *εὔρησα*, aor. 2. *εἶπον*, or for *ἀκούω*, as aor. 1. *ἤκουσα*, aor. 2. *ἤκου*.

To this paper (signed T. F. B.) is attached a long editorial note, by C. J. H (Charles Julius Hare), who would reverse the suggested process, and improve English grammar by the recognition of the double conjugation. Soon after, Mr Kemble, in his paper on the English Præterites,* went further in the same direction. The present writer, owing much to these two writers, and, especially to the papers in question, was, until lately, satisfied to follow them—approving of, and using, the terms *Conjugation*, *Weak* and *Strong*. But what do they come to? Can we, as a matter of fact, make such forms as *swoll* and *swelled*, *hung* and *hanged*, and a few others, differ from each other, in the one being *transitive*, the other *intransitive*? Can *hung* = *pendit*, whilst *hanged* = *suspendit*? Can *swoll* = *tumuit*, whilst *swelled* = *tumefecit*? Should we cultivate such distinctions as the following?—(1) I *hanged* him up and there he *hung*. (2) I *swelled* the number of his followers, which *swoll*, at last, to a thousand. The forms like—

<i>Drink</i>	and	<i>Drank</i> ,	as opposed to	<i>Drench</i>	and	<i>Drenched</i> ,
<i>Lie</i>	—	<i>Lay</i>	—	<i>Lay</i>	—	<i>Laid</i> ,
<i>Rise</i>	—	<i>Rose</i>	—	<i>Raise</i>	—	<i>Raised</i> ,

are, more or less, confirmatory of this view. Yet they are not conclusive. All that they tell us is, *that when we have two forms*, one primitive and intransitive, and the other derivative and transitive, it is the former which is strong rather than weak, and the latter which is weak rather than strong, the words being used in the sense suggested by the writers last mentioned.

What do they come to? If two senses, meaning exactly the same thing, are a philological tautology, two conjugations are the same; and, if so, nothing is got by assuming them. Considering the origin of the forms like *spoke*, it is, surely, safe to put them, as has been suggested, in the same category with Latin words like *mo-mordi*, or *cu-curri*, or (still better) with words like *cepi* from *ce-cepi*. What, then, are these Latin words? a reference to the Greek gives the answer. In Greek τέτυφα (*tetyffa*) = *I have beaten*; ἔτυψα (*etyypsa*) = *I beat*. The first is formed by a reduplication of the initial τ, and, consequently, may be called the reduplicate form. As a tense, it is called the perfect. In ἔτυψα an ε is prefixed, and a σ is added. In the allied language of Italy the ε disappears, whilst the σ (s) remains. *Ετυψα is

* *Phil. Mus*, vol. 11 pp. 378-388.

said to be an aorist tense. In Latin *scripsi* is to *scribo* as ἔτυψα is to τύπτω. But, in the Latin language, a confusion takes place between these two tenses. Both forms exist. They are used, however, indiscriminately. The aorist form has, besides its own, the sense of the perfect. The perfect has, besides its own, the sense of the aorist. In the following pair of quotations, *vixi*, the aorist form, is translated *I have lived*, while *tetigit*, the perfect form, is translated *he touched*

Vixi, et quem dederat cursum Fortuna peregi.
Et nunc magna mei sub telas ibit imago — *Æn* iv

Ut primum alatis tetigit magaha plantis — *Æn* iv

When a difference of form has ceased to express a difference of meaning, it has become superfluous. This is the case with the two forms in question. One of them may be dispensed with; and the consequence is, that, although in the Latin language both the perfect and the aorist forms are found, they are, with few exceptions, never found in the same word. When there is the perfect, the aorist is wanting, and *vice versâ*. The two ideas *I have struck* and *I struck* are merged into the notion of past time in general, and are expressed by one of two forms, sometimes by that of the Greek perfect, and sometimes by that of the Greek aorist. On account of this the grammarians have cut down the number of Latin tenses; forms like *cucurri* and *vixi* being dealt with as one and the same tense. The true view, however, is, that in *curro* the aorist form is replaced by the perfect, and in *vixi* the perfect form is replaced by the aorist. Hence, the history of such a pair of words as *drank* and *moved*, is the history of such a pair of words as *tetigi* and *vixi*. Now the place of these is that of τέτυφα and ἔτυψα, *i. e.* they both belong to one and the same conjugation—of which, however, they are different tenses, one a perfect, the other an aorist. If so, what are our vowel-changing Præterites? Perfects modified in form by the loss of the reduplication and changed in power by having adopted that of the aorist. And what are our Præterites in *-d*? Aorists. The *Conjugation* is really one. The *Tense* is one in appearance only.

CHAPTER XXX.

PERSONS

§ 590 *I CALL* —The word *call* is not one person more than another. It is the simple verb wholly uninflected

Thou callest —The final *-t* appears throughout the West-Saxon, although wanting in the Northumbrian and Old Saxon. In Old High-German it is commoner in some authors than in others. In Middle High-German and New High-German it is universal.

He calls. —The *-s* in *calls* is the *-th* in *calleth*, changed

§ 591 *Thou spakest, thou brakest, thou sungest* —In these forms there is a slight though natural anomaly. The second singular præterite in A. S. was formed not in *-st*, but in *-e*, as þú funde = *thou foundest*, þú sunge = *thou sungest*. Hence the existing termination is derived from the present. Observe that this applies only to the præterites formed by changing the vowel. *Thou loved'st* is Anglo-Saxon as well as English, viz þú lufodest.

CHAPTER XXXI

NUMBERS.

§ 592. IN A. S. the vowel of the plural of certain (so-called) strong præterites was different from that of the singular. More than this —the vowel of the *second person singular* was different from that of the first and third, but the same as that of the plural. Hence

<i>Singular</i>		<i>Plural</i>	
1	Ic sang	1	We sungon
2	þu sunge	2	Ge sungon
3	He sang	3	Hi sungon
<i>Anglo-Saxon</i>			
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>		
Ain	urnon	run	
Ongan	ongunnon	begun	
Span	spunnon	spun	
Sang	sungon	sung	
Swang	swungon	swung	

Sing	Plur	
	diuncon	drunk
Dianc	suncon	sunk
Sanc	spiungon	we sprung
Spiang	swunmon	we swam
Swan	lungon	lung
Rang		

EXAMPLES FROM THE OLD ENGLISH :

1

And the men that heolden him, scorniden him and *smyten* him, and they blindfelden him and *smyten* him, and seiden, Arceð thou Christ to us, who is he that *smoot* thee?—WYCLIFFE, Luke xxii.

2

Sche *ran* and cam to Symound Petir and to a nother disciple—and thee tweyne *runnen* togidre and thilk othei disciple *ran* before Petir —WYCLIFFE, John xx

3

Anoon thei knewen him and thei *runnen* thorou al that countree and *begunnen* to bring sik men —WYCLIFFE, Mark vi

4

We piercedi Tite that as he *began* so also he perfourme in yhou this grace —WYCLIFFE, 2 Cor viii

And the prync of prestis *roos* and seide to him —WYCLIFFE, Matt xxvi

And summe of the farisees *risen* up and foughten, seyinge, &c —WYCLIFFE, Deedis 23

5.

Alas, Custance, thou hast no champion,
But he that *staife* for our redemption

CHAUCER, *Man of Law's Tale* 621

For which they *storven* bothe two

CHAUCER, *Pardoner's Tale* 530

The form in *-en* is, apparently, the conjugation of the A. S. Subjunctive, transferred to the Indicative

CHAPTER XXXII.

ON THE WORDS *DID* AND *BECAME*, CATACHRESTIC

§ 593. *DID*, *catachrestic*.—In the phrase *this will do* = *this will answer the purpose*, the word *do* is wholly different from

* It is scarcely necessary to state that these, as well as the vast majority of the most apposite examples of the present work, are taken from Dr Guest's valuable contributions to the *Transactions of the Philological Society*.

the word *do* = *act*. In the first case it is equivalent to the Latin *valere*, in the second to the Latin *facere*. Of the first, the Anglo-Saxon inflection is *deāh*, *dugon*, *dohste*, *dohlest*, &c. Of the second it is *dō*, *dōð*, *dyle*, &c. In the present Danish they write *duger*, but say *duer* · as *duger* *det noget?* = *Is it worth anything?* pronounced *door deh note?* This accounts for the ejection of the *g*. The Anglo-Saxon form *deāh* does the same

In Robert of Bourne the præterite is *deih*

Philp of Flaundries fleih, and turned sonne the bak
And Thebald nouht he *deih* — ROBERT OF BOURNE, 133

Philp of Flanders fled, and turned soon the back,
And Thebald *did* no good —

The king Isaak fleih, his men had no foyson (*provisions*),
All that tyme he no *deih* — ROBERT OF BOURNE, 159

I'll laugh an' sing, an' shake my leg
As lang 's I *dow* (*am able*) — BURNS

For cunning men I know will sone conclude
I *dow* nothing

SIR D. LINDSAY, *Complaint of the Papingo*

Thre yei in carbed lay,
Trustem the tyme he light,
Never no *dought* him day,
For sorrow he had o' night — Sir *Tristram*, 21

Three yeai in carbed lay,
Trustem the tyme he light,
The day never *dul* him good,
For the sorrow he had at night

We cannot, however (although we ought), say *that doed well enough*, though a Dane says *det dugede nok*

§ 594. *Became, catachrestic* — The *catathresis*, abuse, or confusion between *do* = *valeo*, and *do* = *facio*, repeats itself with the word *become*. When *become* = *fit*, its præterite is *became*. When *become* = *convenio* = *suit* (as in *that dress becomes you*), its præterite ought to be *becomed*. *Become* = *convenio*, is from the same root as the German *bequem* = convenient

§ 595. *Overflown, catachrestic* — There is another verb which has not yet gone wrong, but which is going. I have seen such sentences as *a field overflown with water*. No one, however, has (I hope) brought himself to say *the water overflow the field*. Nevertheless the tendency to catathresis has set in.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

ON CERTAIN APPARENT PRESENTS

§ 596. THE connection between the perfect and present tenses requires notice. In many actions the connection between the cause and effect is so evident, that the word which expresses the former may also be used to denote the latter. Let us say, for instance, that a man *has appealed to his memory* upon a certain subject. Let us say that he *has taxed, has drawn upon it, has referred to it*. What is this but to say that he *has done* something, the act so done being an act of *past* time? Nevertheless, the effect of this act is present. The man who has *appealed to, or taxed his memory*, like the man who has *recollected his ideas*, may truly be said to *remember*. This is an act of *present* time. In like manner a man who *has got the facts* that bear upon any given question, may be said to *know* them. Further—the man who *has taken courage or made up his mind* to do a thing, *dares* to do it. The word *dares*, however, is present; whereas, *has taken courage, &c.*, is perfect. Again—I *have taken possession* of a house = *I am the possessor of it* = *I possess it* = *I own it*. Instances of this sort are numerous; few languages being without them. In Greek and Latin (for example) the words *οἶδα* and *memini* are rarely rendered *I have known*, and *I have remembered*, but *I know* and *I remember*. In English there are, at least, nine of these words—(1) *dare* and *durst*, (2) *own* = *admit*, (3) *can*, (4) *shall*, (5) *may*, (6) *mean* and *mind*, (7) *wot*, (8) *ought*, (9) *must*. Of these, none presents any serious difficulties when we look at them simply in respect to their meaning. To four of them we see our way already: *dare* = *I have made up my mind*; *own* = *I have got possession of*, *mind* = *I have recollected my ideas*; and *wot* = *I have informed myself*, or *I know*. With the other five a similar train of reasoning gives us similar results.

Let *can* = *I have learned*, or, *I have gotten information*, as a perfect, and it is easy to see that as a present it may mean *I am able*. If so, the apophthegm that *Knowledge is Power*, is no new saying, but one that has been implicit in language for centuries. If so, the common expression *I will do all I know*, for *all I can*, is not only justifiable, but laudable.

Let *own*, as in *I own to having done it*, = *I have assented*, and it soon comes to mean *I grant, concede, or admit*.

Let *shall* = *I have chosen, or decided*, or let it mean *I have been determined*, and it soon comes to mean *I am in condition to do so and so*.

Let *may* = *I have gotten the power*, and it = *I am free to do so and so*

Let *must* = *I have been constrained*, or *I have suffered constraint*, and it = *I am obliged*

There is no great difficulty, then, in the logical part of the questions considered in the present chapter. There is an action which a certain verb expresses, and this action is the effect of a preceding one. Meanwhile the link that connects the two is so short that, for the purposes of language, the preliminary act and its result are one.

But the logical view is not our only one. We must look at the *forms* of the words in question, as well as their meanings. If *shall* be a perfect tense, what is the present form out of which it originated? Again, how do we know it to be thus perfect? It is only the etymologist who knows anything about it, the common speakers of common English look upon it as a present. And may they not treat it as such? May they not form a perfect tense out of it? Have they not actually done so in some instances? If *dare* be no present but a perfect, what is *dared*? A perfect formed on a perfect.

Hence, there are two series of phenomena exhibited by the words under notice. (1) There is the loss of the original present. (2) There is the development of secondary forms.

§ 597. It is very evident that the præterites most likely to become present are those of the class which changes the vowel. (1) The fact of their being perfect is less marked. The word *fell* carries with it fewer marks of its tense than the word *moved*. (2.) They can more conveniently give rise to secondary forms. A præterite already ends in *-d* or *-t*. If this be used as a present, a second *-d* or *-t* must be appended.

Respecting these præterite-presents, we have to consider—

Firstly—the words themselves—

Secondly—the forms they take as perfect-presents (or present-perfects); and—

Thirdly—the secondary forms derived from them.

If we can do *more* than this, it is well and good. Thus—it is well and good if we can succeed, in arguing back from the

existing forms to the ones that are lost, so reconstructing the original true presents. Also, if we can ascertain the original meaning as well, so much the better.

§ 598. *Dare, durst*—The verb *dare* is both transitive and intransitive. We can say either *I dare do such a thing*, or *I dare (challenge) such a man to do it*. This, in the present tense, is unequivocally correct. In the perfect the double power of the word *dare* is ambiguous; still it is, to my mind at least, allowable. We can certainly say *I dared him to accept my challenge*, and we can, perhaps, say *I dared not venture on the expedition*. In this last sentence, however, *durst* is the preferable expression. Now, although a case can be made out in favour of *dare* being both transitive and intransitive, *durst* is only intransitive. It never agrees with the Latin word *provoco*, only with the Latin word *audeo*, inasmuch as, whatever may be the propriety or impropriety of such a sentence as *I dared not venture*, &c., it is quite certain that we can not say *I durst him to accept my challenge*. Again—*dare* can be used only in the present tense, *dared* in the perfect only. *Durst* can be used in either. Thus—we can say *I durst not* in the sense *I am afraid to*—and in the sense *I was afraid to*. We can also say, *I durst not do it, although you ask me*; and *I durst not do it when you asked me*. In sense, then, *durst* is both a præterite and a present.

In form *dur-st* is peculiar. What is the import of the *-st*? In such an expression as *thou durst not*, it looks like the *-st* in *call-est*, which is the sign of the second person singular. But we can say *I durst* and *he durst*. Hence, if the *-st* in *dur-st* be the *-st* in *call-est*, it is *that and something more*. In all probability, the *-s* is part of the original root, of which the fuller and older form was *dars*. If so, the inflection would run—

PRESENT		PERFECT	
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>	<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>
1 Dars	Durs-on	1 Durs-t-e	Durs-t-on
2 Durs-e	Durs-on	2 Durs-t-est	Durs-t-on
3 Dars	Durs-on	3 Durs-t-e	Durs-t-on

That the *-s* is part of the original word is nearly certain. The root in question is one which occurs beyond the pale of the German languages. It is Greek as well as German; and in Greek the form is *θάρρ-εῖν* or *θαρσ-εῖν* (*tharr-ein*, *thars-ein*), a fact sufficient to account for both the presence and the absence of

the -s. Let -s- be lost in the present, and let *a* become *ea*, and we have the actual A. S. forms.

PRESENT.		PERFECT.	
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>	<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>
1 Dear	Dmr-on	1 Dms-te	Dms-t-on
2 { Dm1e" Dear-st }	Dm1-on	2 { Dmst (for) Dmst-est }	Dms-t-on
3 Dear	Dmr-on.	3 Dms-t	Durs-t-on

The Mæso-Gothic forms are *dar*, *darst*? *dar*, *daúrūn*, *daúrūp*, *daúrūn*, for the persons of the present tense; and *dāursta*, *dāurstēt*, *dāursta*, &c, for those of the præterite

§ 599. *Own*, and *owned*, from *own* = *admit* In sentences like "he *owned* to having done it = he *admitted* having done it;" or "I have *owned* to it = I have *conceded*, or *granted* it," the original and fundamental idea is that of *giving*, an idea allied to that of *concession* and *admission*. Notion for notion, this has but little to do with the word *own*, as applied to property. Indeed, it is necessary to bear in mind the fact that the two words are distinct To express this difference, the word before *us* may be called the *own concedentis*, the other, the *own possidentis*

The A. S. forms are—

<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>
1 an	unnon
2 unne	unnon
3 an	unnon

Of these A. S. forms, *unne* deserves notice It gives the form in *e*, not the form in *-st*. It also gives us the change of the vowel; so that the word comes out the true præterite *unne*, instead of the present *an-est*, (*own*, *own-est*). The plural forms are also præterite—*unnon*, rather than *an-að* The præterite is :—

<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>
1 uðe	uð-on
2 uðest	uð-on
3 uðe	u-on

But the present word *own-el* is no modern form of *uðe*, but a separate and independent formation. Hence, its history is as follows.—

(a) A certain present, long ago obsolete, gave as its præterite *an*.

(b) The præterite *an* passed as a present

(c) The præterite-present gave origin to the secondary præterite *uðe*

(d) The original præterite-present changed its form, and from *an* or *un* (*unne*) became *own*.

(e) Meanwhile the form *uðe* became obsolete; and—

(f) *Own-ed* became evolved as an ordinary præterite of *own*

"Ich *an* well" to cawth the niztegale — *Hule and Niztegwale*, 173

I take that me God *an* — *Tristram*, 37

i e I take what God has given me

§ 600 *Can* — The form *could* has already been noticed. The remarks upon it having been to the effect that as the *l* was a blunder (and that a blunder of spelling only), we may simplify the investigation by dealing with the word as if it were simply *could*. The history of the word then comes to be nearly that of the words *an* and *uðe*—nearly, but not quite. The form *can-st* is peculiar, being a truly present form co-existent in A S with the truly præterite form *cunne*.

PRESENT

- 1 can
- 2 cunne and canst
- 3 can

PRÆTERITE

- 1 cūð-e
- 2 cūð-est
- 3 cūð-e

Had the history of *can* been *exactly* that of *an*, the præterite would have been *cunneð*. The following (from Dr. Guest) are good instances of its force as *know*

I can no more expound in this matere,

I leine song, I *can* but smal grammere — CHAUCER, *Priores's Tale*, v. 83

He seede *canst* thou Gieck — WYCLIFFE, *Deeds*, 21

Lewede men *cunne* French non,

Amongst an hundred unne this on — *Richard Coeur de Lion*, v. 6

i e Unlearned men understand no French,

Amongst a hundred scarcely one

His fellow taught him homeward privately

Fro day to day till he *coude* it by rote — CHAUCER, *Priores's Tale*, v. 93

—— while there is a mouth

For ever his name shall be *couth* — GOWER, *Confessio Amantis*, 6

I've seen myself, and served against the French,

And they *can* well on horseback — *Hamlet*, iv. 6

Macenas and Agrippa who *can*: most with Cæsar are his friends — *Dryden*

* Here *can* most, &c. = *qui apud Cæsarem plurimum valent*

Clakys þat knowen þys schoulde *kennen* hyt abode.

Vision of Piers Plowman, pass 2

Full redles may ye ren
With all your rewful route,
With care men sall þow *ken*
Edward þoue Lord to lout — *Minot*, p. 23

Full redeless may ye ren
With all your iucful rout
With care one shall teach you
To obey Edward your Lord

Sir Edward sale *ken* you þoue ciede — *Minot*, p. 34

§ 601. *Shall* and *should*.—The latter word stands nearly in the same relation to *shall* as *could* does to *can*, and *use* to *in*. In A. S., however, the *u* of the plural of the present was long

PRESENT		PRÆTERITE	
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>	<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>
1. sceal	scul-on	1. scul-de	scul-d-on.
2. { scealt }	scul-on	2. scul-d-est	scul-d-on
3. { sceale }		3. scul-de	scul-d-on
3. sceal	scul-on		

The form *shalt*, a form which raises a question of person rather than tense, has already been noticed

§ 602 *Might from may*.—The *y* in *may* was originally *-g*, so that our inquiries may proceed as if the word before us were *mag*.

PRESENT	
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
1. mag	mag-on
2. { a mag-est }	mag-on
3. { s mag-e }	
3. mag	mag-on

I am taught to be filled, and to hungre and to abound and to suffre myseiste
I *may* all things in him that comforteth me — WYCLIFFE, *Fil* iv

———he that most *may* when he syttes in pride
When it comes on assay is kesten down wide

Townley Mysteries, 81

The great dai of his wrath the cometh, and who shall *more* (*be able to*)
stand? — WYCLIFFE, *Apocalypse* vi

I seye to you monye seker to entre and ther schuler not *more* (*be able*)
WYCLIFFE, *Luke* xiii

§ 603 *Minded*—This word is the præterite of *mind*, as, A *mind your business*, B *I do mind it, and have minded it all along*. As the præterite of *mind*, there is nothing particular in the word *minded*. But there is a great deal which is particular in the word *mind* itself, wherein the *-d* is no part of the root, but on the contrary the sign of the præterite tense, so that *minded* is a præterite formed from a præterite, just like *should*, *owned*, &c, &c. But *minded* has the further peculiarity of being not only a præterite in *-d*, but a præterite in *-d* formed upon a præterite in *-d*. This is the case with none of the previous words. Secondary præterites as they are, their basis was always formed by a change of vowel, in other terms, it was a præterite like *swam* rather than one like *call-ed*. If it were not so, there would be two *d*'s in all the preceding words, just as there are two *d*'s in *min-d-ed*. The A S forms are *ge-man*, *ge-manst*, *ge-munon*, along with *ge-munde*, *ge-munton*. Hence, the form *minded* (*he minded his business*) is a tertiary formation.

1st. There was the form *man* (*mun*) from *mun* (?), for all practical purposes a present.

2nd. There was the form *ge-munde*, whence the English present *mind*.

3rd. There is *min-d-ed* from *mind*.

Let us, again, go over the A S. forms, paying special attention to those in *u*.

PRESENT		PRÆTERITE	
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur</i>
1 <i>ge-man</i>	<i>ge-mun-on</i>	1 <i>ge-mun-d-o</i>	<i>ge-mun-d-on</i>
2, { <i>ge-man-st</i> }	<i>ge-mun-on</i>	2 <i>ge-mun-d-est</i>	<i>ge-mun-d-on</i>
3 <i>ge-mun</i>	<i>ge-mun-on</i>	3 <i>ge-mun-d-e</i>	<i>ge-mun-d-on</i>

It is from (*g*)-*munde* that *mind* has risen. From *mind* has arisen *mun-d-ed*.

Another form still stands over. In more than one of our provincial dialects we find the word *mun*—as in *I mun go*; at present, this = *I must go*. Originally, however, it must have been *I am minded to go* = *I have made up my mind to go*. It is a truly præterite form. In the Scandinavian tongue it reappears, with a somewhat different, though allied, power, as *mon* and *monne*.

§ 604 *Wot*.—*Wot* = *knew*. It is the perfect form of *wit*, as in *Middlesex to wit* = *Middlesex to know*, or *to be known*.

§ 605 *Ought*—In this word the *gh* represents an A. S. *h*, an *h* which grew out of *g*

PRESENT		PRÆTERITE	
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
1 <i>ah</i>	<i>āgon</i>	1 <i>ah-te</i>	<i>ah-t-on</i>
2 <i>agest, ahst</i>	<i>agon</i>	2 <i>ah-t-est</i>	<i>ah-t-on</i>
3 <i>ah</i>	<i>agon,</i>	3 <i>ah-te</i>	<i>ah-t-on</i>
		<i>Infinitive, ag-an</i>	
		<i>Participle, ag-en</i>	

In the present English the word *owe*=the A. S. *āh*, whilst *ought*=the A. S. *āhte*. The Latin *debeo*=both words; viz the A. S. *āh*, and the English *owe*. But it has two senses—I *am under a moral obligation* and *I am a debtor*. But, *owe* is limited to the latter of these senses. In the language of the nineteenth century, at least, we can say *I owe money*; but we cannot say *I owe to pay some*. On the other hand, we cannot say *I ought money*, though we can say *I ought to pay some*. The effect of this twofold sense has been to separate the words *owe* and *ought*, by giving to the former the modern præterite *ow-ed*, which no more came from *āhte*, than *owned* came from *uðe*. It has also deprived *ought* of its present form, the equivalent to the A. S. *āh*.

As a consequence of this, *ought* has two powers. It is a present and a præterite as well. We can say

He says that I ought to go. and
He said that I ought to go—

just as we say—

He says that I wish to go. and
He said that I wished to go

Ought comes from *owe*—from *ow-* without any sound of *n*.

Own concedentis comes from *o-n*, where there is not only a sound of *n*, but where that sound of *n* is part and parcel of the root.

What does *own*=*possess* come from? Not from the *own concedentis*, though it agrees with that word in having the sound of *n*. (1) The *-n* of the *own concedentis* is radical. The *-n* of the other *own* is not so. (2) The *ow* of the *own concedentis* has grown out of *n*. The *w* of the other *own* has grown out of *h*, which has grown out of *g, gh, k, or kh*.

§ 606 Let us now look to the relation between *own* and *owe* (whence *ought*)

1 *Owe* (whence *ought*) has no *n* Neither had *own* until
after the time of Elizabeth

—Steven *fat* the land *ought* (*possessed*)

ROBERT OF BOURNE, 126

The knight, the which that castle *ought*

Elany Queen, 6 3 2

I *owe* to be baptized of thee, and thou comest to me

WOLFEFF, Matt iii

A stein geaunt is he, of him thou *owest* to dede

Tristram, 3 39

See where he comes, nor poppy nor mandragora,

Nor all the drowsy syrups of the world,

Can ever medicine thee to that sweet sleep

Which thou *ow'dst* yesterday —*Othello*

2 The *w* in the *owe* (whence *ought*) represents an *h* (A S *ah*), representing a *g*, or *gh*, *h*, or *hh* Hence the connection is with *owe* (whence *ought*) Hence, too, the *own debentis* gives an *owe* (or *own*)

§ 607 *Must* —I can only say of this form that it is common to all persons, numbers, and tenses.

§ 608 The class of words under notice is a *natural* one; one of their characteristics being their great antiquity This is shown by the large portion of the so-called Indo-European languages over which they are spread

1. *C-n* (the root of *can*) = the *γν*, the root of *γν-όω*, *γν-ώσκω*, *gn-ovi* = *know*.

2. *D-rs* (the root of *durs-t*) = the *θ-ρs*, the root of *θαρσ εἶν* = *dure*

3 *M-g* (the root of *may*) = (?) the *muc* in *macte Macte* (*proceed, go on*) *tua virtute puer*, &c

4. *-N-* (the root of *own conceitentis*) = (?) the *-n-* in *nno*, *annuo* (= *nod assent*).

5. *Ow-*, the root of *own possidentis* = *eigan* = *ἐχ-* in *ἐχ ω* = *I have*

6 *W-t*, the root of *wit* and *wot* = the *δ* in *οἶδ-α* (*I know* = *I have seen*) and *vid-i*.

7 *M-n* (the root of *mun* and *mind*) = *m-n* in the Latin *memini* = *I have called to mind*

CHAPTER XXXIV

THE VERB SUBSTANTIVE

§ 609. THE so-called Verb Substantive gives us Defect and Complement; but no Irregularity.

Was — Found both in the indicative and conjunctive.

INDICATIVE		CONJUNCTIVE	
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>	<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>
1 Was	Weie	1 Weie	Weie
2 Wast	Weie	2 Weit	Weie
3 Was	Were	3 Weie	Weie

§ 610. *Be* — In the present English conjugated thus. —

CONJUNCTIVE		IMPERATIVE	
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>	<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plur</i>
Be	Be	—	—
—	Be	Be.	Be.
Be	Be	—	—
<i>Impn</i> To be	<i>Pres Part</i> Being.	<i>Past Part</i> Been	

§ 611. In the *Deutsche Grammatik* it is stated that the Anglo-Saxon forms *beō*, *biſt*, *biſ*, *beoð*, or *beō*, have not a present, but a future sense, that whilst *am* means *I am*, *beō*, means *I shall be*, and that in the older languages it is only where the form *am* is not found that *be* has the power of a present form. The same root occurs in the Slavonic and Lithuanic tongues with the same power; as, *esmi* = *I am*, *būsu* = *I shall be*, Lithuanic — *Esmu* = *I am*, *būsiu* = *I shall be*, Livonian. — *Jesm* = *I am*, *budu* = *I shall be*, Slavonic. — *Gsem* = *I am*; *budu* = *I shall be*, Bohemian. This, however, proves, not that there is in Anglo-Saxon a future tense (or form), but that the word *beō* has a future sense. There is no fresh tense where there is no fresh form.

This is explained if we consider the word *beōn* to mean not so much *to be*, as *to become*, a view which gives us an element of the idea of futurity. Things which are *becoming anything* have yet something further to do. Again, from the idea of futurity we get the idea of contingency, and this explains the subjunctive power of *be*. *Hī ne beoð na cīlde, soðlice, on domesdæge ac beoð swa mīcele menn swa swa hī mīgton beōn*

gif hi full, weoxon on gewunlicre ylde = They will not be children, forsooth, on Domesday, but will be as much (so muckle) men as they might be if they were all grown (waxen) in customary age — ÆLFRIC'S *Homilies*.

§ 612 *Am* — The letter *-m* is no part of the original work. It is the sign of the first person, just as it is in all the Indo-European languages. It should also be stated, that, although the fact be obscured, and although the changes be insufficiently accounted for, the forms *am*, *art*, *are*, and *is*, are not, like *am* and *was*, parts of different words, but forms of one and the same word, in other terms, that, although between *am* and *be* there is no etymological connection, there *is* one between *am* and *is*. Thus we collect from the comparison of the other allied languages.

Sanskrit	.	.	<i>asmi</i>	<i>ast</i>	<i>asti</i>
Zend	.		<i>ahmi</i>	<i>ast</i>	<i>astu</i>
Greek	.	.	<i>εἰμι</i>	<i>εἰς</i>	<i>εἶ</i>
Latin	.	.	<i>sunt</i>	<i>es</i>	<i>est</i>
Lithuanic	.	.	<i>esmi</i>	<i>esst</i>	<i>esti.</i>
Old Slavonic	.		<i>ysmy</i>	<i>jest</i>	<i>jesty</i>
Mæso-Gothic	.		<i>um.</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>ist.</i>
Icelandic	.		<i>em</i>	<i>et</i>	<i>er</i>

§ 613. *Worth*.—This is a verb of which the present English gives us but a fragment. In the following extract it means *betide*

Woe *worth* the chase, woe *worth* the day,
That cost thy life my gallant grey — *Lady of the Lake*.

The A. S. infinitive was *weorðan* = *werden* in H. G. = *become*.

Grote wates *worþeþ* yet rede of monnes blode,
Christendom *worþ* y-cast and a doun *

ROBERT OF GLOUCESTER, 132.

And so it fell upon a dai
Forsoth as I you tellen mai,
Sir Thopas wold out ride,
He *worth* upon his stede grey — CHAUCER.

Backe hem noght but let him *worþe*
Vision of Piers Plowman.

My iour is tourned into sturfe
That sober shall I never *worthe* — GOWER, *Conf Am* 5

* Great waters will be yet red of men's blood,
Christendom will be cast down

CHAPTER XXXV

THE PARTICIPLES.—THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE

§ 614 THE present participle is formed by adding *-ing*, as *more, moving*. Like the Latin participle in *-ns*, it was originally declined; the Moso-Gothic and Old High-German forms being *wi-lands* and *hapéntér*, respectively. In the Old Saxon and Anglo-Saxon the forms are *-and* and *-ande*, as *bindand, bindande* = *binding*. In all the Norse languages, ancient and modern, the *-d* is preserved. So it is in the Old Lowland Scotch, and in many of the modern provincial dialects of England, where *strikingd, goand*, is said for *striking, going*. In Staffordshire, and elsewhere, where the *-ing* is pronounced *-ingg*, there is a fuller sound than that of the current English. In Old English the form in *-nd* is predominant, in Middle English the use fluctuates, and in New English the termination *-ing* is universal. In the Scotch of the modern writers we find the form *-in*.

In A S, as has already been stated, the Participle was declined

CHAPTER XXXVI

THE PAST PARTICIPLE.—FORM IN *-EN*

§ 615 THE participle in *-en* —In Anglo-Saxon it *always* ended in *-en*, as *sungen, funden, bunden*. In English it does so *occasionally*. We say, however, *bound* and *found*, the word *bounden* being antiquated. Words where the *-en* is wanting may be viewed in two lights. 1, they may be looked upon as participles that have lost their termination, 2, they may be considered as præterites with a participial sense.

§ 616. *Drank, drunk, drunken* —When the vowel of the plural differs from that of the singular, the participle takes the plural form. To say *I have drunk*, is to use an ambiguous expression; since *drunk* may be either a participle *minus* its termination, or a præterite with a participial sense. To say *I have drank*, is to use a præterite for a participle. To say *I have drunken*, is to use an unexceptionable form.

§ 617 In all words with a double form, as *spoke* and *spoke*, *break* and *broke*, *clave* and *clove*, the participle follows the form in *o*—*spoken*, *broken*, *cloven*. *Spaken*, *braken*, *claven*, are impossible forms. There are degrees of laxity in language, and to say *the spear is broke* is better than to say *the spear is brake*. These two statements bear upon the future history of the *præterite*. That of the two forms *sang* and *sung*, one will, in the course of language, become obsolete, is nearly certain; and, as the plural form is also that of the participle, it is the plural form which is most likely to be the surviving one.

<i>Present</i>	<i>Præterite</i>	<i>Participle</i>	<i>Present</i>	<i>Præterite</i>	<i>Participle</i>
Fall	Fell	Fallen	Shear	Shore	Shorn
Hold	Held	Holden	Wear	Wore	Worn
Draw	Drew	Drawn	Break	Broke	Broken
Shew	Shewed	Shown	Shake	Shook	Shaken
Slay	Slew	Slain	Take	Took	Taken
Fly	Flew	Flown	Get	Got	Gotten
Blow	Blew	Blown	Eat	Ate	Eaten
Crow	Crew	Crown	Tread	Trod	Trodden
Know	Knew	Known	Lid	Lade	Lidden
Grow	Grew	Grown	Forbid	Forbade	Forbidden
Throw	Threw	Thrown	Give	Gave	Given
Beat	Beat	Beaten	Arise	Arose	Arisen
Weave	Wove	Woven	Smite	Smote	Smitten
Freeze	Froze	Frozen	Ride	Rode	Ridden
Steal	Stole	Stolen	Stride	Strode	Stridden
Speak	Spoke	Spoken	Drive	Drove	Driven
Swear	Swore	Sworn	Thrive	Throve	Thriven
Boat	Boat	Boat	Strive	Strove	Striven
Bear	Bore	Born	Write	Wrote	Written
Teat	Took	Torn	Bite	Bit	Bitten

§ 618 *Solden* from *seethe*—The *-al* is Anglo-Saxon. It was found in three other words besides

<i>Præterite</i>		<i>Participle</i>
<i>Sing</i>	<i>Plm</i>	
1 cwæð	cwædon	} <i>ge-cwæðen=spoken</i>
2 cwæde	cwædon	
3 cwæð	cwædon	
1 snað	sndon	} <i>ge-sndon=cut</i>
2. (?)	sndon	
3 snað	sndon	
1 scað	sndon	} <i>ge-soden=solden</i>
2 sude	sndon	
3. scað	sndon	

1 wearð	wuðon	} ge-worðen= <i>become</i>
2. wuðe	wuðon	
3 wearð	wuðon	

§ 619. *Forlorn*.—In the Latin language the change from *s* to *r*, and *vice versâ*, is very common. We have the double forms *arbor* and *arbos*, *honor* and *honos*, &c. Of this change we have a few specimens in English, *e.g.* *rear* and *raise*. In Anglo-Saxon a few words undergo a similar change in the plural number of the so-called strong præterites

Ceose, *I choose*, ceás, *I chose*, cemon, *we chose*, gecoren, *chosen*
 Foileose, *I lose*, foileás, *I lost*, foilmun, *we lost*, foiloen, *lost*.
 Hieose, *I rush*, hieás, *I rushed*, hrmon, *we rushed*, gehroen,
rushed.

This accounts for the participial form *forlorn* or *lost*, in New High-German *verloren*. In Milton's lines,

————— the piercing air
 Burns *more*, and cold performs the effect of fire.

Paradise Lost, b. ii

we have a form from the Anglo-Saxon participle *gefroren*=
frozen

CHAPTER XXXVII

PAST PARTICIPLE —FORM IN -ED -D, OR -T.

§ 620 *THE participle in -d, -t, or -ed*—In the Anglo-Saxon this participle differed from the præterite, inasmuch as it ended in *-ed* or *-t*, whereas the præterite ended in *-ode*, *-de*, or *-te*—as *lufode*, *bernde*, *dypte*, præterites; *gelufod*, *baerned*, *dypt*, participles. As the ejection of the *e* reduces words like *baerned* and *bernde* to the same form, it is easy to account for the present identity of form between the weak præterites and the participles in *-d* *e.g.* *I moved*, *I have moved*, &c. The original difference, however, should be remembered.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

PARTICIPLES.—THE PREFIX *GE-*

§ 621 IN the older writers, and in works written, like Thomson's *Castle of Indolence*, in imitation of them, we find prefixed to the præterite participle the letter *y-*, as *yclept* = *called*, *yclad* = *clothed*; *ydrad* = *dreaded*

The following are the chief facts and the current opinion concerning this prefix —

1 It has grown out of the fuller forms *ge-* Anglo-Saxon *ge-*: Old Saxon, *gi-* Moeso-Gothic, *ga-* Old High-German, *ka-*, *cha-*, *ga-*, *ki-*, *gi-*.

2. It occurs, in each and all of the *Teutonic*—

3 It occurs, with a few fragmentary exceptions, in none of the *Scandinavian*, languages

4 In Anglo-Saxon, it occasionally indicates a difference of sense, as *hâten* = *called*, *ge-hâten* = *promised*, *boren borne*, *ge-boren* = *born*

5 It occurs in nouns as well as verbs

6 Its power, in the case of nouns, is generally some idea of *association* or *collection* — Moeso-Gothic, *sinps* = *a journey*, *ga-sinpa* = *a companion*; Old High-German, *perc* = *hall*; *ki-perki* (*ge-birge*) = *a range of hills*

7. But it has also a *frequentative* power; a frequentative power which is, in all probability, secondary to its collective power; since things which recur frequently recur with a tendency to collection or association. In Middle High-German, *gerassel* = *rustling*, *ge-rumpel* = *c-rumple*

8. And it has also the power of expressing the possession of a quality

<i>Anglo-Saxon</i>	<i>English</i>	<i>Anglo-Saxon</i>	<i>Latin</i>
feax	hair	ge-feax	comatus
heorte	heart	ge-heort	cordatus
stence	odour	ge-stence	odorus.

In the latest parts of the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* (which ends with the reign of Stephen) we find, *inter alia*, the absence of this prefix in all participles except one; that one being *ge-haten*, — a word which, in the Northumbrian dialect, was the last to lose its characteristic initial Word for word, *ge-haten* = *hight* = *called*. Sense for sense, it = *y-clept*, which also means *called*. a word which is not yet quite obsolete, and which is the last participle which preserves the prefix

PART V

SYNTAX.

CHAPTER I

ON SYNTAX IN GENERAL — PROPOSITIONS — NAMES — MIXED
SYNTAX — SYNTAX OF SINGLE, SYNTAX OF DOUBLE PROPO-
SITIONS.

§ 622. *SYNTAX* treats of the arrangement of words and the principles upon which they are put together so as to form sentences. It deals with groups or combinations; in this respect differing from *Etymology*, which deals with individual words only. *Composition* belongs as much to Syntax as to Etymology, for it has already been stated that it is not always an easy matter to distinguish between two separate words and a compound. A crow is *a black bird*. It is not, however, a *black-bird*. The criterion is the accent. When the two words are equally accented the result is a pair of separate words, connected with one another according to the rules of Syntax; as *the crow is a black bird*. When the two words are *unequally* accented, the result is a Compound; as *the black-bird is akin to the thrush*.

§ 623. *Construction* and *Syntax* have much the same meaning. We speak of the rules of *Syntax*, and of the *Construction* of sentences. The Syntax of a language is always regulated by its Etymology, so that in those languages where the sign of Gender, Number, Case, Person, Tense, and Mood are numerous, the Syntax is complex. On the other hand, where the Etymology is simple the Syntax is of moderate dimensions.

In Etymology we *Decline* and *Conjugate*, in Syntax we *Parse*. Parsing is of two kinds; Logical and Etymological. Logical Parsing gives analysis of sentences according to their Terms and Copulas, telling us which is the Subject and which is

the Predicate, which the chief, and which the secondary, parts of each Etymological Parsing gives the analysis of sentences according to the Parts of Speech of which they are composed. It tells us which is the Noun, and which the Verb, &c It separates Adjectives from Substantives, Pronouns from Adverbs, and the like It deals with Numbers, Cases, Persons, &c

§ 624 Speech chiefly consists of (1) commands, (2) questions, and (3) statements The combination of words by which these are effected is called a Proposition There are three kinds of Propositions; one to express commands, one to express questions, and one to express statements

Propositions which convey commands are called Imperative, as *do this, do not delay, walk*

Propositions which convey questions are called Interrogative, as—*what is this? who are you? Is it here?*

Propositions which convey statements are called Declaratory,—as *summer is coming, I am here, this is he*

§ 625 Sentences like *may you be happy* are called Optative, from the Latin word *opto*=*I wish* By more than one good authority, they are placed in a class by themselves as a fourth species of proposition And it cannot be denied that they are expressions of a peculiar character *Would I could* is also optative, meaning *I wish I could*, or more fully,

*I wish
it
I could*

Such being the case, we have two propositions conveyed by three words. There is the omission of the conjunction *that*; and (more remarkable) that of the personal pronoun as well.

§ 626 Sentences like *how well you look* convey an exclamation of surprise, and have been called Exclamatory. Optative Propositions are, to a certain extent, Imperative, and, to a certain extent, Declaratory In *may you be happy*, change the place of *may* and *you*, and the result is an ordinary assertion, *you may be happy* On the other hand, *you be happy* is a command. There is no command, however, without a real or supposed wish on the part of the speaker

Exclamatory Propositions are, to a certain extent, Interrogative, and to a certain extent, Declaratory. In *how well you look*, change the place of the essential parts, and the result is an ordinary assertion, *you look well* Meanwhile *how* indicates the

degree or extent of your well-looking. But it only *indicates* it. The degree itself is undefined; and (as such) the possible object of a question *How do you look?* is an actual Interrogation.

§ 627 Besides being Imperative, Interrogative, or Declaratory, Propositions are either Affirmative or Negative—*Summer is early—summer is not early.*

§ 628 In respect to their structure Propositions consist of Terms and Copulas.

§ 629 Terms are of two kinds, Subjects and Predicates.

The Subject is the term by which we indicate the person or thing concerning which the statement is made or the question asked. In Imperative Propositions it denotes the person to whom the command is given. Thus.—*Summer is coming—what is this—make [thou] haste.*

The Predicate is the term by which we express what we declare, ask, or command. There is no Subject without its corresponding Predicate; no Predicate without its corresponding Subject; and without both a Subject and a Predicate there is no such thing as a Proposition. Without Propositions there are no Questions, Commands, or Declarations, and without these, there would scarcely be such a thing as Language. The little which there would be would consist merely of exclamations like *Oh! Ah! Pish, &c.*

§ 630. The simplest sentences are those which consist of single simple propositions, as

The sun is shining

The moon is shining

Sentences like

The sun and moon are shining,

The sun and moon are shining bright,

are anything but simple, for although, when we consider them merely as sentences, they are both short and clear, they each consist of *two* propositions, as will be stated again.

The simplest propositions are those that consist of the simplest terms, as

Fire is burning

Summer is coming,

and the like; wherein the number of words is three—three and no more, one for the Subject, one for the Predicate, and one for the Copula.

The shortest propositions are not always the simplest. When

each word represents either a term or a copula, their grammatical elements coincide accurately with their logical, as was the case with the preceding examples. When, however, these contain fewer than three words, it is clear that either something must be supplied or that a term and copula are combined in the same word; as is the case with such expressions as

Fire burns,
Summer comes,

where *comes* and *burns* are both Predicate and Copula at once

§ 631 The simplest propositions, then, are those that consist of what are called *single-worded* terms. Most terms, however, are *many-worded*. If it were not so, what would become of those words which, though incapable by themselves of forming a name, are still used for forming a *part* of one—words like *the*, *of*, and the like? Very simple propositions can easily be converted into their opposite, as may be seen by the following operations upon the words

Fire is burning.

- 1 Prefix the definite article—*The fire*—
- 2 Insert an adjective—*The bright fire*—
- 3 Add an Adverb—*The very bright fire*—
- 4 Add a participle, and convert *bright* into its corresponding adverb—*The very brightly-burning fire*—
- 5 Introduce a second substantive, showing its relations to the word *fire* by means of a preposition—*The very brightly-burning fire of wood*—
- 6 Insert *which* after *fire*, followed by a secondary proposition—*The very brightly-burning fire which was made this morning of wood*—
- 7 Add another secondary proposition relating to *wood*—*The very brightly-burning fire which was made this morning out of the wood which was brought from the country*—
- 8 Add another secondary proposition by means of a conjunction.—*The very brightly-burning fire which was made this morning out of the wood which was brought from the country, because there was a sale*—

It is clear that processes like this may be carried on *ad infinitum*, so that a sentence of any amount of complexity will be the result; inasmuch as the Predicate may be made as many-worded as the Subject. However, notwithstanding all the additions, the primary and fundamental portion of the preceding term was simply the word *fire*

§ 632. The Part of Speech to which a word belongs is determined by the place that it takes in the structure of a Proposition. For instance,—words that can by themselves constitute terms are either Nouns or Pronouns, words that can

constitute *both* predicates and copulas, Verbs, words which can constitute but parts, or fractions of terms, Adverbs, Prepositions; and the like

§ 633 Names are either Proper or Common. Proper names are appropriated to certain individual objects. Common names are applied to a whole class of objects. *George, Mary, London, &c.*, designate one particular person or place. *Man, father, town, horse, &c.*, represent objects of which there is a class or collection.

§ 634 Besides being either Proper or Common, names are either Invariable or Variable.

Contrast the meaning of such a word as *I*, with such a word as *father*.

Father is a name denoting any individual that stands in a certain relation to another individual named *son*. The number of such individuals is indefinite. Nevertheless they may be taken as a class, which class is denoted by the general name in question. This name is invariable, since it cannot be applied to any object not belonging to the class which it denotes.

I, on the other hand, is a variable name. Its meaning changes with the person in whose mouth it occurs. When *William* says *I*, it means *William*; when *Thomas* says *I*, it means *Thomas*. If a *mother* says *I*, it means a *mother* and a *female*; if a *father* says *I*, it means a *father* and a *male*. Even if an inanimate object be personified, and be supposed to speak about itself and to say *I* it means that inanimate object. It denotes the speaker whoever it may be, but it is not the invariable name of any speaker whatever.

The two most important terms in Syntax are Concord and Rugmen, the first of which means Agreement, the latter Government. When the Gender, Number, Case, or Person of two connected words is the *same*, we have a Concord, and one word *agrees with* another. There is also a Concord of Mood and Tense; although of this little notice is taken. It is clear, however, that when we say *I do this that I may gain by it*, we preserve a Concord, and that in saying, either, *I do this that I might gain by it*, or *I did this that I may gain by it*, we break one.

§ 635 A little consideration will teach that, in most cases, the laws of Syntax are neither more nor less than the dictates of common sense applied to language, and that, in many cases, the ordinary rules are superfluous. This applies most especially

to the Concords or Agreements No one, who speaks English, need be told that in speaking of a man we say *he*, of a woman, *she*; of an inanimate object, *it* In doing this, we suit the Pronoun to the Substantive, and use a masculine, feminine, or a neuter form accordingly Consequently, the words are said to agree with one another It would, however, be strange if they did not The word *man* is the name of a male The pronoun *he* is the same. They are applied to the same object. Again,—if certain pronouns, such as *they*, apply only to a number of individuals, and never to a single person, and if such a verb as *calls* applies to a single individual only, and never to a number, it requires no great amount of ingenuity to discover that such an expression as *they calls* is nonsensical *They* denotes a multitude, *calls* a single individual

How can the two be united? It is, of course, useful to know that the first of these instances gives what the grammarians call a Concord of Gender; the second a Concord of Number. Common sense, however, lies at the bottom of both A Substantive and a Pronoun which each denote an object of the same sex cannot fail to be in the same Gender, and, because they are this, they are said to agree with one another. In like manner a Pronoun and a Verb, when each means the same person or the same number of persons, exhibit the Concords of Person and Number

Much, then, that is considered by the generality of grammarians as syntax, can either be omitted altogether, or else be better studied under another name

To reduce a sentence to its elements, and to show that these elements are, the subject, the predicate, and the copula; to distinguish between simple terms and complex terms,—this is in either the department of logic or of general grammar

To show the difference in force of expression, between such a sentence as *great is Diana of the Ephesians*, and *Diana of the Ephesians is great*, wherein the natural order of the subject and predicate is reversed, is a point of rhetoric

To state that such a combination as *I am moving* is grammatical, is undoubtedly a point of syntax Nevertheless it is a point better explained in a separate treatise, than in a work upon any particular language The expression proves its correctness by the simple fact of its universal intelligibility.

To state that such a combination as *I speaks*, admitting that *I* is exclusively the pronoun in the first person, and that *speaks*

is exclusively the verb in the third, is undoubtedly a point of syntax. Nevertheless, it is a point which is better explained in a separate treatise, than in a work upon any particular language. An expression so ungrammatical, involves a contradiction in terms, which unassisted common sense can deal with.

There is to me a father—Here we have a circumlocution equivalent to *I have a father*. In the English language the circumlocution is unnatural. In the Latin it is common. To determine this, is a matter of idiom rather than of syntax.

I am speaking, I was reading.—There was a stage in the German languages when these forms were either inadmissible, or rare. Instead thereof, we had the present tense, *I speak*, and the past, *I spoke*. To determine the difference in idea between these pairs of forms is a matter of metaphysics. To determine at what period each idea came to have a separate mode of expression is a matter of the *history* of language. For example, *was lárands* appears in Ulphilas* (Matt. vii. 29). There, it appears as a rare form, and as a literal translation of the Greek *ἦν διδασκῶν* (*was teaching*). The Greek form itself was, however, an unclassical expression for *ἐδίδασκε*. In Anglo-Saxon this mode of speaking became common, and in English it is commoner still. This is a point of idiom involved with one of history.

Swear by your sword—swear on your sword. Which of these two expressions is right? This depends on what the speaker means. If he mean *make your oath in the full remembrance of the trust you put in your sword, and with the imprecation, therein implied, that it shall fail you, or turn against you, if you speak falsely*, the former expression is the right one. But, if he mean *swear with your hand upon your sword*, it is the latter which expresses the meaning. To take a different view of this question, and to write as a rule that *verbs of swearing are followed by the preposition on (or by)* is to mistake the province of the grammarian. Grammar tells no one what he should wish to say. It only tells him how what he wishes to say should be said.

Much of the criticism on the use of *will* and *shall* is faulty in this respect. *Will* expresses one idea of futurity, *shall* another. The syntax of the two words is very nearly that of

* See *Deutsche Grammatik*, iv. 5

any other two That one of the words is oftenest used with a first person, and the other with a second, is a fact, as will be seen hereafter, connected with the nature of *things*, not of words

The following question now occurs If the history of forms of speech be one thing, and the history of idioms another ; if this question be a part of logic, and that question a part of rhetoric , and if such truly grammatical facts as government and concord are, as matters of common sense, to be left uninvestigated and unexplained, what remains as syntax ? This is answered by the following distinction. There are two sorts of syntax ; theoretical and practical, scientific and historical, pure and mixed. Of these, the first consists in the analysis and proof of those rules which common practice applies without investigation, and common sense appreciates, in a rough and gross manner, from an appreciation of the results This is the syntax of government and concord, or of those points which find no place in the present work, for the following reason—*they are either too easy or too hard for it* If explained scientifically, they are matters of close and minute reasoning ; if exhibited empirically, they are mere rules for the memory. Besides this they are universal facts of languages in general, and not the particular facts of any one language. Like other universal facts, they are capable of being expressed symbolically. That the verb (A) agrees with its pronoun (B) is an immutable fact . or, changing the mode of expression, we may say that language can only fulfil its great primary object of intelligibility when $A=B$. And so on throughout A formal syntax thus exhibited, and even devised *à priori*, is a philological possibility. And it is also the measure of philological anomalies.

§ 636 Notwithstanding the previous limitations, there is still a considerable amount of syntax in the English, as in all other languages If I undertook to indicate the essentials of mixed syntax, I should say that they consisted in the explanation of combinations *apparently* ungrammatical, in other words, that they ascertained the results of those causes which disturb the regularity of the pure syntax ; that they measured the extent of the deviation ; and that they referred it to some principle of the human mind—so accounting for it

I am going.—Pure syntax explains this

I have gone—Pure syntax will not explain this. Nevertheless, the expression is good English The power, however,

of both *have* and *gone* is different from the usual power of those words. This difference mixed syntax explains

§ 637. Mixed syntax requires two sorts of knowledge—metaphysical and historical

1. To account for such a fact in language as the expression *the man as rides to market*, instead of the usual expression, *the man who rides to market*, is a question of what is commonly called metaphysics. The idea of comparison is the idea common to the words *as* and *who*.

2 To account for such a fact in language as the expression *I have ridden a horse* is a question of history We must know that when there was a sign of an accusative case in English the words *horse* and *ridden* had that sign; in other words, that the expression was, originally, *I have a horse as a ridden thing*. These two views illustrate each other.

§ 638. In the English, as in all other languages, it is convenient to notice certain so-called figures of speech. They always furnish convenient modes of expression, and sometimes, as in the case of the one immediately about to be noticed, *account* for facts

Personification.—The ideas of apposition and collectiveness account for the apparent violations of the concord of number. The idea of personification applies to the concord of gender. A masculine or feminine gender, characteristic of persons, may be substituted for the neuter gender, characteristic of things. In this case the term is said to be personified.

The cities who aspired to liberty—A personification of the idea expressed by *cities* is here necessary to justify the expression

It, the sign of the neuter gender, as applied to a male or female *child*, is the reverse of the process.

Ellipsis (from the Greek *elleipein* = *to fall short*), or a *falling short*, occurs in sentences like *I sent to the bookseller's*. Here the word *shop* or *house* is understood. Expressions like *to go on all fours*, and *to eat of the fruit of the tree*, are reducible to ellipses

Pleonasm (from the Greek *pleonazein* = *to be in excess*) occurs in sentences like *the king, he reigns*. Here the word *he* is superabundant. In many *pleonastic* expressions we may suppose an interruption of the sentence, and afterwards an abrupt renewal of it; as *the king—he reigns*.

The fact of the word *he* neither qualifying nor explaining the word *king*, distinguishes pleonasm from apposition

Pleonasm, as far as the view above is applicable, is reduced to what is, apparently, its opposite, viz. ellipsis.

My banks, they are furnished,—the most straitest sect,— these are pleonastic expressions. In *the king, he reigns*, the word *king* is in the same predicament as in *the king, God bless him*.

The double negative, allowed in Greek and Anglo-Saxon, but not admissible in English, is pleonastic.

§ 639. *Apposition*.—*Cæsar, the Roman emperor, invades Britain*.—Here the words *Roman emperor* explain, or define, the word *Cæsar*, and the sentence, filled up, might stand, *Cæsar, that is, the Roman emperor, &c.* Again, the words *Roman emperor* might be wholly ejected; or, if not ejected, they might be thrown into a parenthesis. The practical bearing of this fact is exhibited by changing the form of the sentence, and inserting the conjunction *and*. In this case, instead of one person, two are spoken of, and the verb *invades* must be changed from the singular to the plural.

The words *Roman emperor* are said to be in *Apposition* to *Cæsar*. They constitute, not an additional idea, but an explanation of the original one. They are, as it were, *laid alongside* (*appositi*) of the word *Cæsar*. Cases of doubtful number, wherein two substantives precede a verb, and wherein it is uncertain whether the verb should be singular or plural, are decided by determining whether the substantives be in apposition or the contrary. No matter how many nouns there may be, as long as it can be shown that they are in apposition, the verb is in the singular number.

§ 640. *Collectiveness as opposed to plurality*.—In sentences like *the meeting was large, the multitude pursue pleasure, meeting and multitude* are each collective nouns, that is, although they present the idea of a single object, that object consists of a plurality of individuals. Hence, *pursue* is put in the plural number. To say, however, *the meeting were large* would sound improper. The number of the verb that shall accompany a collective noun depends upon whether the idea of the multiplicity of individuals, or that of the unity of the aggregate, shall predominate.

Sand and salt and a mass of iron is easier to bear than a man without understanding.—Let *sand and salt, and a mass of iron* be dealt with as a series of things the aggregate of which forms a mixture, and the expression is allowable.

The king and the lords and commons forms an excellent frame of government. Here the expression is doubtful. Substitute *with* for the first *and*, and there is no doubt as to the propriety of the singular form *is*.

§ 641 *The reduction of complex forms to simple ones.*—In *the-king-of-Saxony's army*, the assertion is, not that the army belongs to Saxony, but that it belongs to the King of Saxony, which words must, for the sake of taking a true view of the construction, be dealt with as a single word in the possessive case. Here two cases are dealt with as one; and a complex term is treated as a single word.

The same reasoning applies to phrases like *the two king Williams*. If we say *the two kings William*, we must account for the phrase by apposition.

§ 642. *True notion of the part of speech in use.*—In *he is gone*, the word *gone* must be considered as equivalent to *absent*; that is, as an adjective. Otherwise the expression is as incorrect as the expression *she is eloped*. Strong participles are adjectival oftener than weak ones; their form being common to many adjectives.

§ 643. *True notion of the original form.*—In the phrase *I must speak*, the word *speak* is an infinitive. In the phrase *I am forced to speak*, the word *speak* is (in the present English) an infinitive also. In one case, however, it is preceded by *to*, whilst in the other, the participle *to* is absent. The reason for this lies in the original difference of form. *Speak*—*to* = the Anglo-Saxon *sprecan*, a simple infinitive, *to speak*, or *speak* + *to* = the Anglo-Saxon *to spreccanne*, an infinitive in the dative case.

§ 644 *Convertibility*—On the other hand, English Syntax has certain decided peculiarities. In languages where each part of speech has its own peculiar and characteristic termination it is scarcely possible to confound a Substantive with a Verb or a Verb with a Substantive. In English, however, where these distinctive signs are rare, it is by no means easy, in all cases, to separate them. Take, for instance, the word *black*. It is, doubtless, in its origin, adjectival. As such, we can give it the degrees of comparison, and say (for instance) *this ink is black*, *this is blacker*, and *that is the blackest of all*. But what when we use such an expression as *the blacks of Africa* or *the blacks are falling*, where there is the sign of the plural number, a phenomenon wholly unknown to the English Adjective? Surely, we must say that *black* means *black man*, or *black thing*, and

that the word is no longer an Adjective but a Substantive. But this is not all. The word may be used as a Verb and a Participle, and the man who *has had his shoes blacked* may say that *the little boy at the corner of the street blacked them*. Speaking roughly, we may say that in the English language, the greater part of the words may, as far as their form is concerned, be one part of speech as well as another. Thus the combinations *s-a-n-th*, or *f-r-a-n-t*, if they existed at all, might exist as either nouns or verbs, as either substantives or adjectives, as conjunctions, adverbs, or prepositions. This is not the case with the Greek language. There, if a word be a substantive, it will probably end in *-s*, if an infinitive verb, in *-ein*, &c. The bearings of this difference between languages like the English and languages like the Greek will soon appear. At present it is sufficient to say that a word, originally one part of speech (*e g* a noun), may become another (*e g.* a verb). This may be called the convertibility of words.

(1) *Adjectives used as substantives* —Of these, we have examples in expressions like the *blacks of Africa*—*the bitters and sweets of life*—*all fours were put to the ground*, which are true instances of conversion, and are proved to be so by the fact of their taking a plural form. On the other hand, however, *let the blind lead the blind* is not an instance of conversion. The word *blind* in both instances remains an adjective, and is shown to remain so by its being uninflected.

(2) *Particles used as substantives* —When king Richard says none of your *ifs* he uses the word *if* as a substantive = *expression of doubt*. Again—*one long now* = *one long present time*.

In *man is mortal*, &c., the Adjective forms a whole term; in *mortal man is fallible* a part of one.

Many good grammarians call the former of these the Predicative, the latter, the Attributive power of the Adjective. The former name is unexceptionable; not the latter. All adjectives, whether predicative or not, imply an attribute. Be the name, however, what it may, the distinction between the construction is an important one; though less so in English than in many other languages. In several of the languages wherein the adjective is declined—in the German, for instance, as one—there are two forms, one like *der gute Knabe*, *the good boy*, *the other like der Knabe ist gut* = *the boy is good*. Of course, in English, where there is but one form for the Adjective, whatever its construction may be, this distinction has no visible existence.

But what if it exist elsewhere? What if the current objections to such expressions as *it is me* (which the ordinary grammars would change into *it is I*) be unfounded, or rather founded upon the ignorance of this difference? That the present writer defends this (so-called) vulgarism may be seen elsewhere. It may be seen elsewhere that he finds nothing worse in it than a Frenchman finds in *c'est moi*, where (according to the English dogma) *c'est je* would be the right expression. Both constructions—the English and the French—are Predicative; and when constructions are Predicative, a change is what we must expect rather than be surprised at

§ 645. Some sentences consist of a single proposition, as—*the sun shines*, others, of two propositions combined, as—*the sun shines; therefore, the day will be fine*. This is made plainer by writing the words thus:—

The sun shines,
therefore
The day will be fine

The Syntax of Single Propositions, being the simplest, comes first under notice

CHAPTER II

SYNTAX OF THE PRONOUN — *THIS, THAT*

§ 646 A PRONOUN is a variable name which can, by itself, form either the subject or the predicate of a proposition. as *I am he, that is it*

With words like *who, what, this, these, that, those, I, thou, we*, and the like, this power, on the part of the pronoun, is plain and clear. All such words comport themselves as substantives, from which they differ, not in respect to the place which they can take in a proposition, but in respect to the principle upon which they do so. The substantive is a fixed, permanent, and inconvertible name: the pronoun, on the other hand, is convertible or variable. But the aforesaid words which so decidedly share the nature of substantives, are not the only pronouns. There are, besides, such words as *some, any, many*, of which the

character is adjectival rather than substantival. Still, they can form terms, and that by themselves. At the same time they are often accompanied by a substantive, and, in some cases, almost require one. In expressions like *some are here, any will do, many are called*, &c, the substantive, to which they are the equivalent, can generally be inserted with advantage; so that we may say, *some men, any instrument, many individuals*. All the pronouns of this class are undeclined. The nearest approaches to an exception to the foregoing statement are supplied by the word *same*, and the ordinals; which, instead of standing quite alone, are generally preceded by the definite article, so that we say *the same, the first*, &c. Here, however, the article is to be looked on as part of the pronoun. For a further elucidation of this, as well as for the nature of the article itself, see below. The etymology of the pronoun preceded that of the substantive, on account of the pronominal inflection being the fuller. For the same reason, the syntax of the pronoun comes first. That, however, of the relatives and interrogatives finds no place for the present. It belongs to the syntax of compound propositions. That of the demonstratives, *so long as they keep their original demonstrative power*, is simple, being limited to *this, these, that, those, and yon*. The simple demonstrative power, however, often passes into something else: a fact which gives us the syntax of the pronoun of the third person, along with that of the indeterminate pronoun, and that of the definite article; all of which will be illustrated as we proceed. In *origin*, however, all these are demonstratives.

§ 647 *This and that* —The chief point of syntax connected with the pure demonstrative is one that is suggested by the following well-known quotation. —

Quocunque aspicias nihil est nisi pontus et aer,
Nubibus hic tumidus, fluctibus ille minax

Here *hic* (= *this* or *the one*) refers to the antecedent *last* named (the *air*); whilst *ille* (= *that* or *the other*) refers to the antecedent *first* named (the *sea*). On the strength of this example, combined with others, it is laid down as a rule in Latin that *this* refers to the last, and *that* to the first, antecedent. What is the rule in English? Suppose we say *John's is a good sword and so is Charles's; this cut through a thick rope, that cut through an iron rod*. In determining to which of the two swords the respective demonstratives refer, the meaning will not

help us at all, so that our only recourse is to the rules of grammar; and it is the opinion of the present writer that the rules of grammar will help us just as little. The Latin rule is adopted by scholars, but still it is a Latin rule rather than an English one. It is, probably, a question which no authority can settle; and all that grammar can tell us is, that *this* refers to the name of the idea which is logically the most close at hand, and *that* to the idea which is logically the most distant. What constitutes nearness or distance of ideas—in other words, what determines their sequence—is another question.

CHAPTER III.

SYNTAX OF THE PRONOUN.—*YOU*.—*I*.—*HIS* AND *HER*.—*ITS*.

§ 648 *YOU*.—As far as the practice of the present mode of speech is concerned, the word *you* is a *nominative* form; since we say *you move, you are moving, you were speaking*. Why should it not be treated as such? There is no absolute reason why it should not. The Anglo-Saxon form for *you* was *eow*; for *ye, gi*. Neither word bears any sign of case at all, so that, form for form, they are equally and indifferently nominative and accusative, as the habit of language may make them. Hence it, perhaps, is more logical to say that a certain form (*you*) is used *either* as a nominative or accusative, than to say that the accusative case is used instead of a nominative; for it is clear that *you* can be used instead of *ye* only so far as it is nominative in power.

§ 649. Dr. Guest has remarked that at one time the two forms were nearly changing place; in evidence of which he gives the following examples.—

As I have made *ye* one, lords, one remain,
So I go stronger *you* more honour gain

Henry VIII iv 2.

What gain *you* by forbidding it to tease *ye*,
It now can neither trouble *you* nor please *ye*.—DRYDEN

§ 650 Carrying out the views just laid down, and admitting *you* to be a nominative, or *quasi-nominative* case, we may extend the reasoning to the word *me*, and call it a secondary

nominative ; inasmuch as such phrases as *it is me* = *it is I*, are common. To call such expressions incorrect English is to assume the point. No one says that *c'est moi* is bad French and that *c'est je* is good. The fact is, that, with us, the whole question is a question of degree. Has or has not the custom been sufficiently prevalent to have transferred the forms *me*, *ye*, and *you* from one case to another? Or, perhaps, we may say, is there any real custom at all in favour of *I* except so far as the grammarians have made one? It is clear that the French analogy is against it. It is also clear that the personal pronoun as a Predicate may be in a different category from the personal pronoun as a Subject.

§ 651 At the same time it must be observed that the expression *it is me* = *it is I* will not justify the use of *it is him*, *it is her* = *it is he* and *it is she*. *Me*, *ye*, *you*, are what may be called *indifferent* forms, *i e* nominative as much as accusative, and accusative as much as nominative. *Him* and *her*, on the other hand, are not indifferent. The *-m* and *-r* are respectively the signs of cases other than the nominative.

§ 652 *Pronomen reverentiae*—When we say *you* instead of *thou*, it is doubtful whether, in strict language, this is a point of grammar. I imagine that instead of addressing the person we speak to as a single individual, and applying to him a plural pronoun, we treat him as a collection of persons. If so, the practice is other than grammatical. We treat one person as more than one. There is, evidently, some courtesy in this ; inasmuch as the practice is very general. The Germans change, not only the number, but the person, and say (*e g*) *sprechen sie Deutsch* = *speak they German* ? rather than either *sprechst du* (*speakest thou*), or *sprechet ihr* (*speak ye*).

§ 653 *Dativus ethicus*—In the phrase

Rob me the exchequer.—*Henry IV*

the *me* is expletive, and is equivalent to *for me*. This is conveniently called the *dativus ethicus*. It occurs more frequently in the Latin than in the English, and more frequently in the Greek than in the Latin.

§ 654. *The reflected personal pronoun*.—In the English language there is no equivalent to the Latin *se*, the German *sich*, and the Scandinavian *sik*, or *sig*, from which it follows that the word *self* is used to a greater extent than would otherwise be the case. *I strike me* is awkward, but not ambiguous.

Thou strikest thee is awkward, but not ambiguous. *He strikes him* is ambiguous; inasmuch as *him* may mean either the person who strikes or some one else. In order to be clear we add the word *self* when the idea is reflective. *He strikes himself* is, at once, idiomatic, and unequivocal. So it is with the plural persons. *We strike us* is awkward, but not ambiguous. *Ye strike you* is the same. *They strike them* is ambiguous. Hence, as a general rule, whenever we use a verb reflectively, we use the word *self* also. The exceptions to this rule are either poetical expressions or imperative moods.

He sat *him* down at a pillar's base.
Sit *thee* down

§ 655 *Reflective neuters*.—In *I strike me*, the verb *strike* is transitive. In *I fear me*, the verb *fear* is intransitive or neuter, unless indeed *fear* mean *terrify*—which it does not. Hence, the reflective pronoun appears out of place, *i. e.* after a neuter or intransitive verb. Such a use, however, is but the fragment of an extensive system of reflective verbs thus formed, developed in different degrees in the different Gothic languages, but in all more than in the English.

§ 656 *Equivocal reflectives*.—The proper place of the reflective is *after* the verb. The proper place of the governing pronoun is, in the indicative or subjunctive moods, *before* the verb. Hence in expressions like the preceding there is no doubt as to the power of the pronoun. The imperative mood, however, sometimes presents a complication. Here the governing person may *follow* the verb; so that *mount ye* = either *be mounted* or *mount yourselves*. In phrases, then, like this, and in phrases

Bush ye, bush ye, my bonny, bonny bide,
Bush ye, bush ye, my winsome marrow,

the construction is ambiguous. *Ye* may either be a nominative case governing the verb *bush*, or an accusative case governed by it = *yourself*.

§ 657 The words *his*, and *her*, are genitive cases—not adjectives, being equivalent to

mater ejus, not *mater sua*,
pater ejus, — *pater suus*.

§ 658. It has already been shown that *its* is a secondary genitive.

To the examples already adduced add (from Dr. Guest) the following.—

The apoplexy is, as I take it, a kind of lethargy I have read the cause of *his* effects in Galen, *it* is a kind of deafness—2 *Henry IV* 1. 2.

If the salt have lost *his* savour, wherewith shall it be seasoned? *It* is neither fit for the land nor yet for the dunghill, but men cast *it* out—Luke, xiv 34, 35

Some affirm that every plant has *his* particular fly or caterpillar, which it breeds and feeds.—WALTON'S *Angler*

This rule is not so general, but that *it* admitteth of *his* exceptions—CAREW

CHAPTER IV

SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.—TRUE REFLECTIVE ABSENT IN ENGLISH.

—THE WORD *SELF*

§ 659 A TRUE reflective pronoun is wanting in English. In other words, there are no equivalents to the Latin pronominal forms *se*, *sibi* Nor yet are there any equivalents in English to the so-called adjectival forms *suus*, *sua*, *suum*. At first, it seems superfluous to state all this—to say that if there were no such primitive form as *se*, there could be no such secondary form as *suus* Such, however, is not really the case *Suus* might exist in a language, and yet *se* be absent, in other words, the derivative form might have continued whilst the original one had become extinct Such is really the case with the *Old Frisian* The equivalent to *se* is lost, whilst the equivalent to *suus* is found. In the *Modern Frisian*, however, both forms are lost.

§ 660. The history of the reflective pronoun in the German tongues is as follows:—

In Mæso-Gothic—Found in two cases, *sis*, *sik*=*sibi*, *se*.

In Old Norse—*Ser*, *sik*=*sibi*, *se*.

In Old High-German.—The dative form lost; there being no such word as *sir*=*sis*=*sibi*.

In Old Frisian.—As stated above, there is here no equivalent to *se*, whilst there is the adjectival form *sin*=*suus*.

In Old Saxon—The equivalent to *se* and *sibi* very rare The equivalent to *suus* not common, but commoner than in Anglo-Saxon

In Anglo-Saxon.—No instance of the equivalent to *se* at all. The forms *sinne*=*suum* and *sinum*=*suo*, occur in *Beowulf*. In *Cædmon* cases of *sun*=*suus* are more frequent. Still the usual form is *his*=*ejus*.

In the *Dutch*, *Danish*, and *Swedish*, the true reflectives, both personal and possessive, occur; so that the modern *Frisian* and *English* stand alone in respect to the entire absence of them

§ 661. The *undoubted* constructions of the word *self*, in the present state of the cultivated *English*, are three-fold.

1 In *my-self*, *thy-self*, *our-selves*, and *your-selves*, the construction is that of a common substantive with an adjective or genitive case. *My-self*=*my individuality*, and is similarly construed—*mea individualitas (persona)*, or *mei individualitas (persona)*

2 In *him-self* and *them-selves*, when accusative, the construction is that of a substantive in apposition with a pronoun *Himself*=*him*, *the individual*.

3 *Composition*—It is only, however, when *himself* and *themselves* are in the accusative case, that the construction is appositional. When they are used as nominatives, it must be explained on another principle. In phrases like *He himself was present*; *they themselves were present*, there is no government, no concord, no apposition; at least no apposition between *him* and *self*, *them* and *selves*. In this difficulty, the only logical view that can be taken of the matter, is to consider the words *himself* and *themselves*, not as two words, but as a single word compounded; and, even then, the compound will be of an irregular kind; inasmuch as the inflectional element *-m*, is dealt with as part and parcel of the root

Her-self.—The construction here is *ambiguous*. Since *her* may be either a so-called genitive, like *my*, or an accusative, like *him*.

Itself.—Is also *ambiguous*. The *s* may represent the *-s* in *its*, as well as the *s*- in *self*.

This inconsistency is as old as the *Anglo-Saxon* stage of the *English* language

§ 662. Another instance of this preponderance of the adjectival over the substantival power is conjoined with the same inconsistency supplied by the word *one*, the following illustrations of which are from Mr. Guest—*Phil Trans* No. 22

In this world wote I no knight,
Who duist *his one* with hym fight.

Ipomedon, 1690

Ƨah ha *hwe one* were
Ayem so kene kelseie and al his kine riche.

St Catherine, 90

Though she *alone* were
Against so feice a kaisei, and all his kingdom.

Here *his one, her one*, means *his singleness, her singleness*

He made his mone
Within a garden all *him one*—GOWER, *Confess Amant*

CHAPTER V

MINE.—THINE — OURS.—ETC

§ 663 THERE is a difference between the construction of *my* and *mine*. We do not say *this is mine hat*, and we cannot say *this hat is my*. Nevertheless, except as far as the collocation is concerned, the construction of the two words is the same, *i. e.* it is either that of an adjective *agreeing* with, or that of a possessive case *governed* by, a substantive.

§ 664 A common genitive case can be used in two ways; either as part of a term, or as a whole one—1. *This is John's hat.* 2. *This hat is John's* in which case it is said to be used as a Predicate, or Predicatively. And a common adjective can be used in two ways; either as part of a term, or as a whole term. 1. *These are good hats* 2. *These hats are good.* Now, whether we consider *my*, and the words like it, as adjectives or cases, they possess only *one* of the properties just illustrated, *i. e.* they can only be used as part of a term—*this is my hat*; and not *this hat is my*. And whether we consider *mine*, and the words like it, as adjectives or cases, they possess only *one* of the properties just illustrated, *i. e.* they can only be used as *whole terms*, or Predicatively—*this hat is mine*; not *this is mine hat*.

Hence, for a full and perfect construction, whether of an adjective or a genitive case, the possessive pronouns present the phenomenon of being, singly, incomplete, but complementary to each other when taken in their two forms.

§ 665. In expressions like *my hat*, from which we are unable to separate *my* and use it as a single word, the construction is, nearly, that of the Articles. It is scarcely, however, safe to say that *my*, *thy*, *our*, and *your*, are actual articles. Nevertheless, they are incapable of being used by themselves.

In the predicative construction of a genitive case, the term is formed by the single word only so far as the *expression* is concerned. A substantive is always *understood* from what has preceded—*This discovery is Newton's* = *this discovery is Newton's discovery*

The same with adjectives.—*This weather is fine* = *this weather is fine weather*

And the same with absolute pronouns—*This hat is mine* = *this hat is my hat*, and *this is a hat of mine* = *this is a hat of my hats*.

CHAPTER VI.

SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS—THE INDETERMINATE CONSTRUCTION.

§ 666. DIFFERENT languages have different modes of expressing indeterminate propositions. In Greek, Latin, and English, the passive voice is used—*λέγεται*, *dicitur*, *it is said*. The Italian uses the reflective pronoun; as, *si dice* = *it says itself*. Sometimes the plural pronoun of the third person is used. Thus, in our language, *they say* = *the world at large says*. Finally, *man* has an indeterminate sense in the Modern German, as, *man sagt* = *man says* = *they say*. The same word was also used indeterminately in the Old, although, it is not so used in the Modern, English. In the Old English, the *-n* was occasionally lost and *man* or *men* became *me*.

The present indeterminate pronoun is *one*, as, *one says* = *they say* = *it is said* = *man sagt*, German, = *on dit*, French = *si dice*, Italian. It has already been stated that the indeterminate pronoun *one* has no etymological connection with the numeral *one*; but that it is derived from the French *on* = *homme* = *homo* = *man*.

Two other pronouns, or to speak more in accordance with the present habit of the English language, one pronoun, and one

adverb of pronominal origin, are also used indeterminately, viz. *it* and *there*.

§ 667. *It* can be either the subject or the predicate of a sentence,—*it is this—this is it—I am it—it is I*. When *it* is the subject of a proposition, the verb necessarily agrees with it, and can be of the singular number only, no matter what be the number of the predicate—*it is this—it is these*. When *it* is the predicate of a proposition, the number of the verb depends upon the number of the subject.

§ 668 *There* can only be the predicate of a proposition, differing in this respect from *it*. Hence, it never affects the number of the verb, which is determined by the nature of the subject—*there is this—there are these*. When we say *there is these*, the analogy between the words *these* and *it* misleads us, the expression being illogical. Furthermore, although a predicate, *there* always stands in the beginning of propositions, *v. e.* in the place of the subject. This also may mislead.

§ 669. Although *it*, when the subject, being itself singular, absolutely requires that its verb should be singular also, there is in German such an expression as—*es sind menschen* = *it are men*, where *es* = the English *there*

§ 670. In such phrases as *it rains, it snows, it freezes*, it would be hard to say, in express terms, what *it* stands for. Suppose we are asked *what rains? what snows? what freezes?*—the answer is difficult. We might say *the rain, the weather, the sky*, or what not. Yet of these answers none is satisfactory. To say the *rain rains, the sky rains, &c.*, sounds strange. Yet we all know the meaning of the expression—obscure as it may be in its details. We all know that the word *it* is essential to the sentence; and that if we omitted it and simply said *rains*, the grammar would be faulty. We also know that it is the subject of the proposition. In the old grammars, the word *Deus* (*God*) was held to be the subject.

<i>Pluit,</i>	raines	<i>Deus meus</i>
<i>Gelat,</i>	flieses	— tuus
<i>Degelat,</i>	thowes	— suus
<i>Ningit,</i>	snawes	— ipsius.
<i>Tonat,</i>	thoneies	— sanctus.
<i>Grandinat,</i>	hayles	— omnipotens
<i>Fulgurat,</i>	lownes	— creator

See Wright's volume of *Vocabularies from the Tenth Century to the Fifteenth*.

CHAPTER VII.

SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.—ARTICLES.

§ 671. THE articles in English are *the*, *an*, *no*, and *every*. More than one competent writer has already suggested that *no* is an article. If so, it must, of course, be considered as different in its construction from the ordinary negative. It has no independent existence. It *has* an existence when coupled with a substantive or another pronoun. It = *not one*, and *none*, in power. The construction of *every* is exactly the construction of *no*. We can say *every man* as we can say *no man*, and *every one* as we can say *no one*; but we cannot say *every* and *no* alone.

§ 672 When two or more substantives, following each other, denote the same object, the article precedes the first only. Thus—we say, *the secretary and treasurer*, when the two offices are held by one person. When two or more substantives following each other denote different objects, the article is repeated, and precedes each. We say *the (or a) secretary and the (or a) treasurer*, when the two offices are held by different persons. This rule is much neglected.

§ 673. Before a consonant, *an* becomes *a*, as *an axe*, *a man*. In *adder*, which is properly *nadder*, and in *nag*, which is properly *ag*, there is a misdivision. So, also, in the old glossaries.

<i>Hec auris</i>	a neie	<i>v. e.</i> an ear
<i>hec aquila</i>	a neggle	— an eagle
<i>hec anguilla</i>	a nele	— an eel.
<i>hec erinaceus</i>	a nurchon	— an urchin.
<i>hec comes</i>	a nerle	— an earl
<i>hec semor</i>	a nald man	— an old man
<i>hec exul</i>	a nowtlay	— an outlaw.
<i>hec lutricus</i>	a notyre	— an otter.
<i>hec alba</i>	a nawbe	— an aube.
<i>hec amictus</i>	a namyt	— an amice
<i>hec securis</i>	a nax	— an axe.
<i>hec axis</i>	a naxyltre	— an axletree
<i>hec ancoru</i>	a nankyre	— an anchor.

CHAPTER VIII.

SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.—THE NUMERALS

§ 674. THE numeral *one* is naturally singular. All the rest are naturally plural. Nevertheless such expressions as—*one two* (= *one collection of two*), *two threes* (= *two collections of three*), are legitimate. They are so because the sense of the word is changed. We may talk of several *ones* just as we may talk of several *aces*; and of *one two* just as of *one pair*.

Expressions like the *thousandth-and-first* are incorrect. They mean neither one thing nor another; 1001st being expressed by *the thousand-and-first*, and 1000th + 1st being expressed by *the thousandth-and-the-first*. And, here it may be noticed that, although I never found it to do so, the word *odd* is capable of taking an ordinal form. The *thousand-and-odd-th* is as good an expression as the *thousand-and-eigh-th*. In words of this kind the construction is that of *the king-of-Saxony's army*.

It is by no means a matter of indifference whether we say the *two first* or the *first two*. The captains of two different classes at school should be called the *two first boys*. The first and second boys of the same class should be called the *first two boys*.

CHAPTER IX.

SYNTAX OF SUBSTANTIVES.

§ 675. A SUBSTANTIVE is an *Invariable* name, which can form *either* the Subject or the Predicate of a Proposition.

A Substantive is an *Invariable* name; herein differing from the Pronoun, which is *Variable*.

The Declension of the Substantive is more limited than that of the Pronoun. It gives but two Cases, and no Gender.

§ 676. *Ellipsis of Substantives*.—The historical view of phrases like *Rundell and Bridge's*, *St. Paul's*, &c., shows that this ellipsis is common to the English and the other Gothic languages. Furthermore it shows that it is met with in languages

not of the Gothic stock, and, finally, that the class of words to which it applies, is, there or thereabouts, the same generally. Thus—

The words most commonly understood are (1) *house* and *family*, or words reducible to them. In Latin *Dianæ* = *ædem Dianæ* (2) *Country retinue*. (3) *Son, daughter, wife, widow*. —*Νηλεὺς Κόδρου*, Greek.

§ 677. The following phrases are referrible to a different class of relations :—

1. *Right and left*—supply *hand*. This is, probably, a real ellipsis. The words *right* and *left* have not yet become true substantives; inasmuch as they have no plural forms. In this respect, they stand in contrast with *bitter* and *sweet*; inasmuch as we can say *he has tasted both the bitters and the sweets of life*.

2. *All fours*.—*To go on all fours*. No ellipsis. The word *fours* is a true substantive, as proved by its existence as a plural

§ 678 *Proper names can only be used in the singular number*.—Proper or individual names are essentially *singular*, and it is a common, as well as a true, statement that no *individual name can be plural*. How, then, can we use such expressions as *both the Bostons are important sea-ports*, or, *as long as Mæcenas is about Maros will be plentiful*? = *Sint Mæcenas non deerunt Flacce, Marones*? The *Boston* in Lincolnshire is a different town from the *Boston* in Massachusetts; so that, though the same combination of sound or letters applies to both, it cannot be said that the same *name* is so applied. The same name is one thing. The same word applied to different objects is another. A name is only so far individual as it applies to some individual object. The two Bostons, however, are different objects. In the case of *Mæcenas* and *Virgil* there are but two individuals—one *Mæcenas* and one *Virgil*. *Mæcenas*, however, is something more than the particular patron of *Virgil*. He is the sample, type, or representative of *patrons in general*. *Virgil*, in like manner, is something more than the particular poet patronized by *Mæcenas*. He stands for *poets in general*. Hence the meaning of the Latin line and of the English sentence that preceded it, is this—*As long as there are men like Mæcenas there will also be men like Virgil*. But a man like *Mæcenas* is a patron, and a man like *Virgil* a poet. Hence—*As long as there are patrons there will be poets also*. When we say the

four Georges ; the Pitts and Camdens, &c, the words that thus take a plural form have ceased to be proper names. They either mean the persons called *George*, &c, or, persons so like *George*, that they may be considered as identical

§ 679 *Collocation* —In the present English, the genitive case always precedes the noun by which it is governed—*the man's hat* = *hominis pileus* ; never *the hat man's* = *pileus hominis*.

CHAPTER X

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 680. AN Adjective is a word which can form the Predicate, but not the Subject, of a Proposition

An Adjective is a word suggestive of a name rather than an actual name itself

.The name suggested by an adjective is always that of an abstraction.

The Declension of the Adjective is more limited than that of the Substantive. It gives neither Case nor Number.

It has, however, an Inflection which is wanting both to the Substantive and the Pronoun, viz. that of Degree.

§ 681. *Pleonasm* —Pleonasm can take place with adjectives only in the expression of the degrees of comparison.

The more serene spirit

The most stantest sect

§ 682. *Collocation* —As a general rule the adjective precedes the substantive—a *good man*, not a *man good* When, however, the adjective is either qualified by the expression of its mode, or accompanied by another adjective, it may follow the substantive :—

A man *just and good*

A woman *wise and fair*

A hero *devoted to his country*

A patriot *disinterested to a great degree*

Single simple adjectives thus placed after their substantive, belong to the poetry of England, and especially to the ballad poetry—*sighs profound—the leaves green*.

§ 683. *Government*—The only adjective that governs a case, is the word *like*. In the expression *this is like him*, &c., the original power of the dative remains. This is an inference from the facts—

That (1) in most languages which have inflections to a sufficient extent, the word meaning *like* governs a dative case; that (2) if ever we use in English any preposition at all to express similitude, it is the preposition *to*—*like to me*, *like to death*, &c.

§ 684 Expressions such as *full of merit*, *good for John*, are by no means instances of the government of adjectives; the really governing words being the prepositions *of* and *for* respectively. Hence, the most that can be said, in cases like these, is that particular adjectives determine the use of particular prepositions—thus the preposition *of* generally follows the adjective *full*, &c.

§ 685. The positive preceded by the adjective *more*, is equivalent to the comparative—*e. g. more wise = wiser*. The reasons for employing one expression in preference to the other, depend upon the nature of the particular word used. When it is, at one and the same time, of Anglo-Saxon origin and monosyllabic, there is no doubt about the preference to be given to the form in *-er*. Thus *wis-er* is preferable to *more wise*. When, however, the word is compound or trisyllabic, the combination with the word *more* is preferable—

more fruitful being better than *fruitfuller*
more villanous *villanouser*

Between these two extremes, there are several intermediate forms wherein the use of one rather than another will depend upon the taste of the writer. The question, however, is a question of euphony, rather than of aught else. It is also illustrated by the principle of not multiplying secondary elements. In words like *fruitfuller* and *fruitfullest* there are two additions to the root

§ 686. A refinement upon the current notions as to the power of the comparative degree has already been indicated, and reasons are given for believing that the fundamental notion expressed by the comparative inflection is the idea of comparison or contrast between *two* objects

If so, it is better, in speaking of only two objects, to use the comparative degree rather than the superlative—even when we use the definite article *the*. Thus—

This is *the better* of the two,
rather than

This is *the best* of the two

This principle is capable of an application more extensive than our habits of speaking and writing will verify.

Again; to go to other parts of speech: we should logically say—

Whether of the two,
rather than

Which of the two.

Either the father or the son,
but not

Either the father, the son, or the daughter

§ 687. Wallis considers the forms in -'s, like *father's*, not as genitive cases, but as adjectives. Looking to the logic of the question alone, he is right, and looking to the practical syntax of the question, he is right also. He is only wrong on the etymological side of the question.

“Nomina substantiva apud nos nullum vel generum vel casuum discrimen sortuntur”—P. 76

“Duo sunt adjectivorum genera, a substantivis immediate descendunt, quæ semper substantivis suis præponuntur. Primum quidem adjectivum possessivum libet appellare. Fit autem a quovis substantivo, sive singulari sive plurali, addito -s—Ut *man's nature, the nature of man, natura humana vel hominis, men's nature, natura humana vel hominum, Virgil's poems, the poems of Virgil, poemata Virgilia vel Virgiliana*”—P. 89

§ 688. Certain Adjectives in the Neuter Gender may be used as adverbs; as *the sun shines brightly; the time flies fast; the snail moves slow*

These are expressions to which many grammarians object. Doubtless, it is better to say *brightly* and *slowly*. There is one class of words, however, where we have no choice, viz. the Adjectives in -ly (from *like*). It has already been stated that we cannot derive *daily* from *daily*, in other words that no such adverb as *daily* exists. There exist, however, such phrases as *he labours daily; he sleeps nightly, he watches hourly*, and others; in all of which the simple Adjective is used as an adverb.

CHAPTER XI.

SYNTAX OF VERBS.—ON VERBS IN GENERAL.

§ 689 A VERB is a word which can, by itself, form both the Predicate and Copula of a Proposition, as, *The sun shines*.

For the purposes of Syntax it is convenient to divide verbs into—(1) Intransitive, (2) Transitive, (3) Auxiliar, (4) Substantive, (5) and Impersonal.

§ 690. *Intransitive and Transitive*.—A transitive verb implies an object affected; as, *I move my limbs*, and *I strike the enemy*. An act, however, may take place, and yet no object be affected by it. *To hunger, to thirst, to sleep, to wake*, are verbs that indicate states of being rather than actions affecting objects. As such, they are *Intransitive*.

§ 691. Many verbs, naturally transitive, may be used as intransitive,—e. g. *I move, I strike*, &c. Many verbs, naturally intransitive, may be used as transitives,—e. g. *I walked the horse* = *I made the horse walk*.

Transitive verbs are naturally followed by some noun or other, and that noun is *always* the name of something affected by them *as an object*.

Intransitive verbs are not naturally followed by any noun at all; and when they are so followed, the noun is *never* the name of anything affected by them *as an object*.

§ 692. No verb, in the present English, *directly governs* a genitive case. This not a mere negation. In Anglo-Saxon certain verbs *did* govern one, e. g. *verbs of ruling* and others—*weolde thises middangeardes* = *he ruled (weulded) this earth's*.

§ 693. The word *give*, with a few others, governs a dative case. Phrases like *give it him, whom shall I give it?* are perfectly correct, and have been explained above. The prepositional construction in *give it to him, or to whom shall I give it?* is unnecessary.

§ 694. The government of verbs, as illustrated by the preceding examples, is *objective*. But it may also be *modal*. It is modal when the noun which follows the verb is not the name of any object affected by the verb, but the name of something explaining the manner in which the action of the verb takes

place, the instrument with which it is done, the end for which it is done, &c

The government of transitive verbs is necessarily objective. It may also be modal,—*I strike the enemy with the sword* = *ferio hostem gladio*.

The government of intransitive verbs can only be modal,—*I walk with the stick*. When we say *I walk the horse*, the word *walk* has changed its meaning, and signifies *make to walk*, and is, by the very fact of its being followed by the name of an object, converted from an intransitive into a transitive verb.

The modal construction may also be called the *adverbial construction*; because the effect of the noun is akin to that of an adverb,—*I fight with bravery* = *I fight bravely*, *he walks a king* = *he walks royally*.

§ 695 The modal construction sometimes takes the appearance of the objective inasmuch as intransitive verbs are frequently followed by a substantive, which substantive is in the objective case. *To break the sleep of the righteous* is to affect, by breaking, the sleep of the righteous but, *to sleep the sleep of the righteous*, is not, to affect, by sleeping, the sleep of the righteous. since the act of sleeping is an act that affects no object whatever. It is a *state*. We may, indeed, give it the appearance of a transitive verb, as we do when we say, *the opiate slept the patient*, meaning thereby *lulled to sleep*; but the transitive character is only apparent. *To sleep the sleep of the righteous* is to sleep in agreement with—or according to—or after the manner of—the sleep of the righteous, and the construction is adverbial.

1. *Traditive*.—As *I give the book to you* = *do librum tibi*. *I teach you the lesson* = *διδάσκω σὲ τὴν διδασκάλιον*. In all traditive expressions, there are three ideas: (1) an agent, (2) an object, (3) a person, or thing, to which the object is made over, or transferred, by the agent. For this idea the term dative is too restricted. since, in Greek and some other languages, both the name of the object conveyed, and the name of the person to whom it is conveyed, are, frequently, put in the accusative case.

2. *Appositional*.—As, *she walks a queen: you consider me safe*. The appositional construction is, in reality, a matter of concord rather than of gender. It will be considered more fully in the following section.

§ 696. No verb governs a nominative case. The appositional construction *seems* to require such a form of government; but the form is only apparent.

It is I.
It is thou
It is he, &c

Here, although the word *is* is followed by a nominative case, it by no means governs one—at least not as a verb.

It has been stated above that the so-called verb-substantive is only a verb for the purposes of etymology. In syntax, it is only a part of a verb, *i. e.* the copula.

Now this fact changes the question of the construction in expressions like *it is I*, &c., from a point of government to one of concord. In the previous examples the words *it*, *is*, and *I*, were, respectively, *subject*, *copula*, and *predicate*; and, as it is the function of the copula to denote the agreement between the predicate and the subject, the real point to investigate is the nature of the concord between these two parts of a proposition.

Now the predicate need agree with the subject in case only.

1. It has no necessary concord in gender—*she is a man in courage—he is a woman in effeminacy—it is a girl.*

2. It has no necessary concord in number—*sin is the wages of death—it is these that do the mischief.*

3 It has no necessary concord in person—*I am he whom you mean*

4 It *has*, however, a necessary concord in case. Nothing but a nominative case can, by itself, constitute a term of either kind—subject or predicate. Hence, both terms must be in the nominative, and, consequently, both in the same case. Expressions like *this is for me* are elliptic. The logical expression is *this is a thing for me*

The predicate must be of the same case with its subject.

Hence—The copula, instead of determining a case, expresses a concord.

All words connected with a nominative case by the copula (*i. e.* the so-called verb-substantive) must be nominative,—*It is I; I am safe*

All words in apposition with a word so connected must be nominative.—It is difficult to illustrate this from the English language, from our want of inflections. In Latin, however, we

say *vocor Johannes* = *I am called John*, not *vocor Johannem*. Here the logical equivalent is *ego sum vocatus Johannes*—where

1. *Ego* is nominative because it is the subject.
2. *Vocatus* is nominative because it is the predicate, agreeing with the subject.
3. *Johannes* is nominative because it is part of the predicate, and in apposition with *vocatus*.

Although in precise language *Johannes* is said to agree with *vocatus* rather than to be in apposition with it, the expression, as it stands, is correct. Apposition is the agreement of substantives, agreement the apposition of adjectives.

All verbs which, when resolved into a copula and participle, have their participle in apposition (or agreeing) with the noun, are in the same condition as simple copulas—*she walks a queen* = *she is walking a queen* = *illa est incedens regina*

The construction of a subject and copula preceded by the conjunction *that*, is the same in respect to the predicate by which they are followed as if the sentence were an isolated proposition

This rule determines the propriety of the expression—*I believe that it is he* as opposed to the expression *I believe that it is him*.

I believe = *I am believing*, and forms one proposition.

It is he, forms a second.

That, connects the two ; but belongs to neither.

Now, as the relation between the subject and predicate of a proposition cannot be affected by a word which does not belong to it, the construction is the same as if the propositions were wholly separate.

When the substantive infinitive, *to be*, is preceded by a passive participle, combined with the verb substantive, the construction is nominative—*it is believed to be he who spoke*, not *it is believed to be him*.—Here there are two propositions :—

- 1 It is believed —
- 2 Who spoke

Now, here, *it* is the subject, and, as such, nominative. But it is also the equivalent to *to be he*, which must be nominative as well. *To be he is believed* = *esse ille creditur*,—or, changing the mode of proof,—

1. *It* is the subject and nominative.

2 *Believed* is part of the predicate ; and, consequently, nominative also.

3 *To be he* is a subordinate part of the predicate, in apposition with *believed*—*est creditum, nempe entitas ejus*. Or, *to be he is believed* = *esse ille est credim*.

As a general expression for the syntax of copulas and appositional constructions, the current rule, that *copulas and appositional verbs must be followed by the same case by which they are preceded*, stands good

CHAPTER XII.

SYNTAX OF VERBS —CONCORD

§ 697. THE verb must agree with its subject in person,—*I walk* not *I walks*, *he walks*, not *he walk*. It must also agree with it in number,—*we walk*, not *we walks*; *he walks*, not *he walk*.

I speak may, logically, be reduced to *I am speaking*, in which case it is only the *part* of a verb. Etymologically, indeed, the verb substantive is a verb ; inasmuch as it is inflected as such ; but for the purposes of construction, it is a copula only, and it merely denotes the agreement or disagreement between the subject and the predicate

Plural subjects with singular predicates—The wages of sin are death—Honest men are the salt of the earth.

Singular subjects with plural predicates.—These constructions are rarer than the preceding. inasmuch as two or more persons (or things) are oftener spoken of as being equivalent to one, than one person (or thing) is spoken of as being equivalent to two or more.

Sixpence is twelve halfpennies

He is all head and shoulders

Vulnera totus erat

Tu es deliciae meæ

Ἐκτωρ, ἀτὰρ σύ μοι ἔσσι πατὴρ καὶ πότνια μήτηρ,
Ἦδε κασίγνητος, σὺ δὲ μοι θαλερὸς παρακοίτης

§ 698 A substantive, when it stands alone, and is taken by

itself, without a pronoun, is *impersonal*—the word being used in a definite and technical sense; the import of which will be seen in the sequel. *John*, for instance, or *master*, may be the name of the person speaking; the name of the person spoken to, or the name of the person spoken about—*I, John, walk; thou, John, walkest, he, John, walks.*

Here the substantive is impersonal, because it belongs to no person in particular, or to any person indifferently.

The true person is given by the pronoun: and, when there is any doubt as to its nature, the question can be settled by the introduction, or substitution, of a pronoun

In the vast majority of cases the substantive is in the third person. This is because the vast majority of objects consists of *things* rather than persons; things which we can talk about, but which we rarely address; things which can rarely talk about themselves. Hence, the pronoun which represents them is *he, she, it, or they*, rather than *I, or thou*. Nevertheless, there is no object whatever which we may not, on some occasion, address, and no object whatever which we may not, by an act of imagination, convert into a speaker. The person, then, is determined by the pronoun, not by the substantive.

CHAPTER XIII.

SYNTAX OF VERBS.—MOODS.

§ 699 THE infinitive mood is a noun. The current rule—that *when two verbs come together the latter is placed in the infinitive mood*—means that one verb can govern another only by converting it into a noun,—*I begin to move = I begin the act of moving*. Verbs, as verbs, can only come together in the way of apposition,—*I irritate, I beat, I talk at him, I call him names, &c*. The construction, however, of English infinitives is twofold. (1.) Infinitive Proper. (2.) Gerundial

§ 700 When one verb is followed by another *without* the preposition *to*, the construction must be considered to have grown out of the A. S. form in *-an*.

I may go,	<i>not</i>	I may <i>to</i> go	I should wait,	<i>not</i>	I should <i>to</i> wait
I might go,	—	I might <i>to</i> go	Let me go,	—	Let me <i>to</i> go
I can move,	—	I can <i>to</i> move.	He let me go,	—	He let me <i>to</i> go
I could move,	—	I could <i>to</i> move	I do speak,	—	I do <i>to</i> speak.
I will speak,	—	I will <i>to</i> speak	I did speak,	—	I did <i>to</i> speak
I would speak,	—	I would <i>to</i> speak	I daie go,	—	I daie <i>to</i> go
I shall wait,	—	I shall <i>to</i> wait.	I dust go,	—	I dust <i>to</i> go

Thou shalt *not see* thy brother's ox *fall* down by the way

We *heard* him *say*, I will destroy the temple

I *feel* the pain *abate*.

He *bid* her *alight*

I would fain *have* any one *name* to me that tongue that any one can speak as he should do by the rules of grammar.

This, in the present English, is the rarer of the two constructions.

§ 701. When one verb is followed by another, preceded by the preposition *to*, *i. e.* *I begin to move*, the construction must be considered to have grown out of the A S form in *-nne*. This is the case with the great majority of English verbs. The following examples, from the Old English, of the gerundial construction where we have, at present, the objective, are Dr. Guest's:—

- 1 Eihid myght nought to stand þam ageyn

ROBERT OF BOURNE.

- 2 Whether feith schall move to save him?

WYCLIFFE, James II.

3. My woful child what fight maist thou to take?

HIGGINS, *Lady Sabine*, 4.

4. Never to retourne no more,

Except he *would* his life *to loose* therefore

HIGGINS, *King Albanaet*, 6

5. He said he *could not to forsake* my love

HIGGINS, *Queen Elstrude*, 20

6. The mayster lette X men and mo

To uende.

Octavian, 381

7. And though we owe the fall of Troy requite,

Yet *let* revenge thereof from gods *to lighte*

HIGGINS, *King Allanaet*, 16

- 8 *I durst*, my lord, *to wager* she is honest

OTHELLO, IV 2

- 9 Whom when on ground she grovelling *saw to roll*,

She ran in haste.

Faery Queen, iv. 7, 32

§ 702 *I am to speak* — Three facts explain this idiom

1. The idea of *direction towards an object* conveyed by the dative case and by combinations equivalent to it.

2. The extent to which the ideas of necessity, obligation, or intention are connected with the idea of *something that has to be done, or something towards which some action has a tendency*

3. The fact that expressions like the one in question historically represent an original dative case or its equivalent, since *to speak* grows out of the Anglo-Saxon form *to sprecanne*, which, although called a gerund, is really a dative case of the infinitive mood.

Johnson thought that, in the phrase *he is to blame*, the word *blame* was a noun. If he meant a noun in the way that *culpa* is one, his view was wrong. But if he meant a noun in the way that *culpare*, and *ad culpandum*, are nouns, it was right.

I am to blame — This idiom is one degree more complex than the previous one, since *I am to blame* = *I am to be blamed*. As early, however, as the Anglo-Saxon period, the gerunds were liable to be used in a passive sense: *he is to lufigenne* = not *he is to love*, but *he is to be loved*.

The principle of this confusion may be discovered by considering that *an object to be blamed is an object for some one to blame*, just as *an object to be loved is an object for some one to love*.

§ 703. Imperatives are—

- (1) Used in the second person :
- (2.) They take pronouns after, instead of before, them :
- (3) They often omit the pronoun altogether.

CHAPTER XIV.

TIME AND TENSE.

§ 704 *TIME* is one thing; *tense* another; such statements as identify them being exceptionable. *Tense* is to *time*, much as *gender* is to *sex*; i. e. a grammatical name for a natural condition: and as *sex* and *gender* were carefully distinguished from each other so should we carefully distinguish *tense* and *time*. To constitute a tense there must be an inflection. *Vocat* in Latin

and *calls* in English are tenses *Vocatus sum* and *I have called* are combinations, which, so far as they express time, partake of the nature of tenses

The following is an exhibition of some of the *times* in which an action may take place, as found in the English and other languages, expressed by the use of either an inflection or a combination

§ 705. *Time considered in one point only*—

1. *Present*.—An action taking place at the time of speaking, and incomplete—*I am beating, I am being beaten*. Not expressed, in English, by the simple present tense; since *I beat* means *I am in the habit of beating*.

2. *Aorist*.—An action that took place in past time, or previous to the time of speaking, and which has no connection with the time of speaking,—*I struck, I was stricken*. Expressed in English, by the præterite, in Greek by the aorist. The term aorist, from the Greek ἀόριστος = *undefined*, is a convenient name for this sort of time.

3 *Future*.—An action that has neither taken place, nor is taking place at the time of speaking, but which is stated as one which *will* take place.—Expressed, in English, by the combination of *will* or *shall* with an infinitive mood; in Latin and Greek by an inflection *I shall (or will) speak, λεκ-σω, dica-m*.

None of these expressions imply more than a single action, in other words, they have no relation to any second action occurring simultaneously with them, before them, or after them,—*I am speaking now, I spoke yesterday, I shall speak to-morrow*

By considering past, present, or future actions not only by themselves, but as related to other past, present, or future actions, we get fresh varieties of expression. Thus, an act may have been going on, when some other act, itself one of past time, interrupted it. Here the action agrees with a present action in being incomplete; but it differs from it in having been rendered incomplete by an action that is passed. This is exactly the case with the—

4. *Imperfect*.—*I was reading when he entered*. Here we have two acts; the act of *reading* and the act of *entering*. Both are past as regards the time of speaking, but both are present as regards each other. This is expressed, in English, by the past tense of the verb substantive and the present participle, *I was speaking*, and in Latin and Greek by the imperfect tense, *dicebam, ἔτυπτον*.

5. *Perfect*—Action past but connected with the present by its effects or consequences—*I have written, and here is the letter* Expressed in English by the auxiliary verb *have* followed by the *participle passive in the accusative case and neuter gender of the singular number* The Greek expresses this by the reduplicate perfect $\tau\acute{\epsilon}\tau\upsilon\phi\alpha = I$ have beaten

6. *Pluperfect*.—Action past, but connected with a second action subsequent to it, *which is also past*—*I had written when he came in.*

7. *Future present*—Action future as regards the time of speaking, present as regards some future time *I shall be speaking about this time to-morrow*

8. *Future praterite*.—Action future as regards the time of speaking, past as regards some future time—*I shall have spoken by this time to-morrow.*

§ 706. These are the chief expressions which are simply determined by the relations of actions to each other and to the time of speaking either in English or any other language But over and above the simple idea of *time*, there may be others super-added: thus, the phrase, *I do speak*, means, not only that *I am in the habit of speaking*, but that I also *insist* upon it being understood that I am so. This may be called the *Emphatic construction*.

§ 707 Again, an action that is mentioned as either taken place, or as having taking place at a given time, may take place again and again. Hence the idea of *habit* may arise out of the idea of either present time or aorist time.

§ 708 *The representative expression of past and future time*—An action may be past, yet, for the sake of bringing it more vividly before the hearers, we may make it present. *He walks* (for *walked*) *up to him, and knocks* (for *knocked*) *him down*, is, by no means, the natural habitual power of the English present So, in respect to a future, *I beat you if you don't leave off* for *I will beat you* This is sometimes called the *historic use* of the present tense. I find it more convenient to call it the *representative use* inasmuch as it is used more after the principles of painting than of history, the former of which, necessarily, *represents* things as present, the latter, more naturally, describes them as *past*

The use of the representative present to express simple actions is unequivocally correct To the expression, however, of complex actions it gives an illogical character,—*As I was doing this he enters* (for *entered*) Nevertheless, such a use of the

present is a fact in language, and we must take it as it occurs.

The present time can be used instead of the future; and that on the principle of representation Can a future be used for a present? No

The present tense can be used instead of the aorist; and that on the principle of representation Can a past time be used for a present?

In respect to the perfect tense, where it exists, there is no doubt The answer is in the affirmative. For all purposes of syntax a perfect tense, or a combination equivalent to one, is a present. Contrast the expression, *I come that I may see*; with the expression, *I came that I might see*; *i. e.* the present construction with the aorist. Then bring in the perfect construction, *I have come*. It differs with the aorist, and agrees with the present—*I have come that I may see*. The reason for this is clear. There is not only a present element in all perfects, but for the purposes of syntax, the present element predominates. Hence expressions like *I shall go*, need give us no trouble, even though *shall* be considered as a perfect tense. Suppose the root *sk-ll* to mean *to be destined* (or *fated*) Provided we consider the effects of the action to be continued up to the time of speaking, we may say, *I have been destined to go*, just as well as we can say *I am destined to go*

The use of the aorist as a present (except so far as both the tenses agree in their power of expressing *habitual* actions) is a more difficult investigation It bears upon such expressions as *I ought to go*, &c It is necessary to remember that the connection between the present and the past time, which is involved in the idea of a perfect tense (τέτυφα), or perfect combination (*I have beaten*), is of several sorts It may consist in the *present* proof of the *past* fact,—*I have written, and here is the evidence that I have done so*. It may consist in the *present* effects of the *past* fact,—*I have written, and here is the answer*.

§ 709. Without either enumerating or classifying these different kinds of connection, it is necessary to indicate two sorts of *inference* to which they may give origin.

1. *The inference of continuance*—When a person says, *I have learned my lesson*, we presume that he can say it, *i. e.* that he has a *present knowledge* of it. Upon this principle κίκτημαι = *I have earned* = *I possess*. The past action is assumed to be continued in its effects.

2. *The inference of contrast*—When a person says, *I have been young*, we presume that he is so no longer. The action is past, but it is continued up to the time of speaking by the contrast which it supplies. Upon this principle, *fuit Ilium* means *Ilium is no more*.

In speaking, this difference can be expressed by a difference of accent—*I have learned my lesson*, implies that *I don't mean to learn it again*. *I have learned my lesson*, implies that *I can say it*.

§ 710. Notwithstanding its name, the present tense, in English, does not express a strictly *present* action. It rather expresses an habitual one. *He speaks well* = *he is a good speaker*. If a man means to say that he is in the act of speaking, he says *I am speaking*. It has also, especially when combined with a subjunctive mood, a future power—*I beat you* (= *I will beat you*) *if you don't leave off*. Again—the English præterite is the equivalent, not to the Greek perfect, but the Greek aorist. *I beat* = ἔτυψα, not τέτυφα. The true perfect is expressed, in English, by the auxiliary *have* + the past participle.

CHAPTER XV.

SYNTAX OF VERBS.—IMPERSONALS.

§ 711 *MESEEMS*—Equivalent to *it seems to me*; *mihī videtur*, φαίνεται μοι. Here, *seems* is intransitive; and *me* has the power of a dative case.

§ 712. *Methinks*.—In the Anglo-Saxon there are two forms; *þencan* = *to think*, and *þincan* = *to seem*. It is from the latter that the verb in *methinks* comes. The verb is intransitive; the pronoun dative.

*Methought I saw my late espoused wife
Brought to me, like Alceſtus, from the grave.*

MILTON.

§ 713. *Me listeth* or *me lists*.—Equivalent to *it pleases me* = *me iuvat*. Anglo-Saxon *lystan* = *to wish, to choose*, also *to please, to delight*. Unlike the other two, the verb is transitive, so that *me* is accusative. These three are the only true impersonal

verbs in the English language. They form a class by themselves, because no pronoun accompanies them, as is the case with the equivalent expressions *it appears*, *it pleases*, and with all the other verbs in the language.

CHAPTER XVI.

SYNTAX OF VERBS.—THE AUXILIARIES.

§ 714 THE auxiliary verbs may be classified upon a variety of principles. The following, however, are all that need here be applied.

According to their inflectional or non-inflectional powers.

—Inflectional auxiliaries are those that may either replace or be replaced by an inflection. Thus—*I am struck* = the Latin *ferior*, and the Greek *τυπτομαι*. These auxiliaries are in the same relation to verbs that prepositions are to nouns. The chief inflectional auxiliaries are —

1. *Have*; equivalent to an inflection in the way of tense—*I have bitten* = *mo-morli*
2. *Shall*, ditto. *I shall call* = *voc-abo*
3. *Will*, ditto. *I will call* = *voc-abo*
4. *May*; equivalent to an inflection in the way of mood. *I am come that I may see* = *venio ut vid-eam*.
5. *Be*, equivalent to an inflection in the way of voice *To be beaten* = *verberari*, *τύπτεσθαι*
6. *Am*, *art*, *is*, *are*, ditto Also equivalent to an inflection in the way of tense. *I am moving* = *move-o*.
7. *Was*, *were*; ditto *I was beaten* = *ἐ-τυφθην*: *I was moving* = *move-bam*

According to their non-auxiliary significations—The power of the word *have* in the combination *I have a horse*, is clear enough. It means possession. The power of the same word in the combination *I have been*, is not so clear, nevertheless it is a power which has grown out of the idea of possession. This shows that the power of a verb as an auxiliary may be a modification of its original power; *i e.* of the power it has in non-auxiliary constructions Sometimes the difference is very little: the word *let*, in *let us go*, has its natural sense of per-

mission unimpaired. Sometimes it is all but lost. *Can* and *may* exist chiefly as auxiliaries.

1. Auxiliary derived from the idea of possession—*have*

2. Auxiliaries derived from the idea of existence—*be, is, was*

3. Auxiliary derived from the idea of future destination, dependent upon circumstances external to the agent—*shall*

4. Auxiliary derived from the idea of future destination, dependent upon the volition of the agent—*will*. *Shall* is simply predictive; *will* is predictive and promissive as well.

5. Auxiliary derived from the idea of power, dependent upon circumstances external to the agent—*may*.

6. Auxiliary derived from the idea of power, dependent upon circumstances internal to the agent—*can*. *May* is simply permissive; *can* is potential. In respect to the idea of power residing in the agent being the cause which determines a contingent action, *can* is in the same relation to *may* as *will* is to *shall*.

7. Auxiliary derived from the idea of sufferance—*let*

8. Auxiliary derived from the idea of necessity—*must*.

9. Auxiliary derived from the idea of action—*do*.

In respect to their mode of construction.—Auxiliary verbs combine with others in three ways

1. *With participles*—a) With the present, or active participle—I *am speaking*. b) With the past, or passive, participle—I *am beaten, I have beaten*

2. *With infinitives*—a) With the objective infinitive—I *can speak*. b) With the gerundial infinitive—I *have to speak*.

3. *With both infinitives and participles.*—I *shall have done, I mean to have done*

CHAPTER XVII.

THE PARTICIPLE.

§ 715. A PARTICIPLE, like an adjective, can form the predicate of a proposition, but not the subject.

A participle is a word suggestive of a name rather than a name itself.

The name suggested by a participle is always that of an agent.

The declension of the English participle is more limited than that of the adjective. It gives no degrees.

§ 716. The forms in *-ing* have already been noticed. When substantives, they are in regimen, and govern a genitive case—*What is the meaning of the lady's holding up her train?* Here the word *holding* = *the act of holding*.—*Quid est significatio elevationis pullæ de parte fœminæ?*

When participles, they are in apposition or concord, and would, if inflected, appear in the same case with the substantive, or pronoun, preceding them—*What is the meaning of the lady holding up her train?* Here the word *holding* = *in the act of holding*, and answers to the Latin *fœminæ elevantis*.—*Quid est significatio fœminæ elevantis pullam?*

§ 717. The combination of the auxiliary *have* with the past participle, requires notice. It is, here, advisable to make the following classifications:—

1. The combination with the participle of a *transitive verb*,—*I have ridden the horse; thou hast broken the sword; he has smitten the enemy*

2. The combination with the participle of an *intransitive verb*,—*I have waited; thou hast hungered, he has slept*

3. The combination with the participle of the verb substantive,—*I have been, thou hast been, he has been.*

It is by examples of the first of these three divisions that the true construction is to be shown.

For an object of any sort to be in the possession of a person, it must previously have existed. If I possess a horse, that horse must have had a previous existence. Hence, in all expressions like *I have ridden a horse*, there are two ideas—a past idea in the participle, and a present idea in the word denoting possession.

For an object of any sort, affected in a particular manner, to be in the possession of a person, it must previously have been affected in the manner required. If I possess a horse that has been ridden, the riding must have taken place before I mention the fact of the ridden horse being in my possession; inasmuch as I speak of it as a thing already done,—the participle, *ridden*, being in the past tense.

I have ridden a horse = *I have a horse ridden* = *I have a horse as a ridden horse*. In this case the syntax is of the

usual sort. (1.) *Have* = *own* = *habeo* = *teneo*; (2) *horse* is the accusative case = *equum*; (3) *ridden* is a past participle, agreeing either with *horse*, or *with a word in apposition with it understood*. Mark the words in italics. The word *ridden* does not agree with *horse*, since it is, virtually, of the neuter gender. Neither, if we said *I have ridden the horses*, would it agree with *horses*, since it is of the singular number.

The true construction is arrived at by supplying the word *thing*. *I have a horse as a ridden thing* = *habeo equum equitatum* (neuter).

I have horses as a ridden thing = *habeo equos equitatum* (singular neuter).

Here the construction is—

TASTE . . . matuis flugbus mibies,
Aibonibus venti, nobis Amayllides nœ

or in Greek—

Δεινὸν γυναιξὶν αἱ δι' ὀδίνων γοαί

The classical writers supply instances of this use of *have*. *Compertum habeo*, milites, verba viis virtutem non addere = *I have discovered* = *I am in possession of the discovery*. Quæ cum ita sint, satis de Cæsare hoc dictum habeo.

The combination of *have* with an intransitive verb is irreducible to the idea of possession, indeed it is illogical. In *I have waited*, we cannot make the idea expressed by the word *waited* the object of the verb *have* or *possess*. The expression has become a part of language by means of the extension of a false analogy. It is an instance of an illegitimate imitation.

The combination of *have* with *been* is more illogical still, and is a stronger instance of the influence of an illegitimate imitation. In German and Italian, where even intransitive verbs are combined with the equivalents to the English *have* (*haben* and *avere*), the verb-substantive is not so combined; on the contrary, the combinations are—

Italian; io sono stato	=	<i>I am been.</i>
German; ich bin gewesen	=	<i>ditto.</i>

which is logical

§ 718. *Syntax of the verb-substantive in the present tense with the past participle passive.*—In propositions like *I am moved, he is beaten, we are struck, it is given*, the verb-substantive is joined to the participle passive; and so there arise phrases

which have the power of a verb in the passive voice. It is well known that in some languages these ideas are expressed, not by the combination of the verb substantive and participle, but by a single word *e. g.* in Latin, *moveor* = *I am moved*; *percutimur* = *we are struck*, *datur* = *it is given*. In the circumstance that the phrases above have the power of passive forms, there is nothing peculiar. Beyond this there is, however, a peculiarity. The participles *moved*, *beaten*, *struck*, *given*, are participles not of a present, but of a *past* tense, and hence the proper meaning of the phrases given above (and of all others like them) should be very different from what it really is. *I am moved*, should mean, not *I am in the act of being moved*, but *I am a person who has been moved*,—*he is beaten*, should mean, not *he is a person who is in the act of suffering a beating*, but *one who has suffered a beating*, in other words, the sense of the combination should be *past*, and not *present*. By a comparison between the English and Latin languages in respect to this combination of the verb-substantive and participle, this anomaly on the part of the English becomes very apparent. The Latin word *motus* is exactly equivalent to the English word *moved*. Each is a participle of the passive voice, and of the past tense. Besides this, *sum* in Latin equals *I am* in English. Now, the Latin phrase *motus sum* is equivalent, not to the English combination *I am moved*, but to the combination *I have been moved*, *i. e.* it has a past and not a present sense. In Greek the difference is plainer still, because in Greek there are two participles passive, one for the present, and another for the past tense, *e. g.* *τυπτόμενος εἰμι* (*typtomēnos eimi*) = *I am one in the act of undergoing a beating*, *τετυμμένος εἰμι* = *I am one who has undergone a beating*. The reason for this confusion in English, lies in the absence of a passive form for the present. In Mæso-Gothic there existed the forms *sluhada* = *he, (she or it) is beaten* (*percutitur*, *τύπτεται*), and *slahanda* = *they are beaten* (*percutiuntur*, *τύπτονται*) (*typtontai*). These were true passive forms. In like manner there occurred *gibada* = *he (she or it) is given* (*datur*), &c. Now, as long as there was a proper form for the present, like those in Mæso-Gothic, the combination of the present tense of the verb-substantive with the participle past passive had the same sense as in Latin and Greek, that is, it indicated past time: *e. g.* *ga-bundan-s im* = *I have been bound* (not *I am bound*), *gibans ist* = *he (she or it) has been given* (not *is given*), &c. When the pas-

sive form, however, was lost, the combination took the sense of a present tense

The extent to which this difference has engendered, in the various languages of the Gothic stock, a variety of expedients, may be seen from the following tables taken from the *D. G.* iv. 19

The equivalents to the Latin *datur* are in—

Mæso-Gothic	.	gib-ada
Old High-German	.	1st kep-an
" "	.	wndit kep-an
" " of Nothkei	.	wnt keb-en.
Middle High-German	.	wnt geb-en
New High-German	.	wnd ge-geb-en.
Old Saxon	.	is gebh-an
"	.	wntheth gebh-an
Middle Dutch	.	es ge-ghev-en.
" "	.	bleft ge-ghev-en
New Dutch	.	woidt ge-gev-en
Old Frisian	.	werth e-jev-en.
Anglo-Saxon	.	weordeð git-en
English	.	is giv-en.
Old Norse	.	ei get-mn.
Swedish	.	giv-es
Danish	.	bliver giv-en
"	.	voidei giv-en.

To the Latin *datus est* the equivalents are in—

Mæso-Gothic	.	1st gib-ans
"	.	vas-gib-ans
"	.	varth gib-ans
Old High-German	.	was kep-an
" "	.	waith kep-an
" " of Nothkei	.	1st kep-an
Middle High-German	.	1st geb-an
New High-German	.	1st ge-geb-en worden *
Old Saxon	.	was gebh-an
"	.	warth gebh-an
Middle Dutch	.	waert ghe-gev-en
" "	.	blef ghe-gev-en
New Dutch	.	es ghe-gev-en worden *
Old Frisian	.	is ejev-en
Anglo-Saxon	.	is gif-en
English	.	has been giv-en

* Is become given, or is given become.

Old Norse	.	.	heft veit gef-inn
Swedish	.	.	hai varit giv-en
Danish	.	.	har vaet gav-en

D G iv 19

CHAPTER XVIII

SHALL AND WILL, OUGHT, ETC.

§ 719. THE niceties connected with the use of the first two of these words are well known. They are sufficiently numerous and complicated to demand a special notice.

1. The first point to bear in mind is the fact, that although such phrases as *I shall speak*, and *I will speak*, are called *future tenses*, they are, in reality, no such thing. They are combinations of a present tense and an infinitive mood—*speak* being the infinitive mood, and *shall* and *will* the present tenses of *should* and *would*. The act that is to be done is *future*. The state of things on the part of the person who is to do it is *present*.

2. The next point is one of less importance in the way of Syntax, than it has been in the way of Etymology, being also a point which has already been elucidated. It is the difference between the two words *will* and *shall* as present tenses. The former is a present tense, absolutely and completely, having always been one. The latter was originally a perfect, and is what we have called a præterite-present, or (changing the prefix) a perfect-present.

For the chief purposes, however, of the present chapter (*i. e.* for the chief purposes of Syntax), they are both equally present. Nevertheless, the original difference requires remembering.

3. The construction of the two words *will* and *shall* in their relations to the infinitive which follows them is the same, being also the same as those of the words *can*, *may*, *must*, and a few others. They are never found except in connection with other verbs. Hence, whilst we say—

I *can* do this
Thou *mayest* do this
He *must* do this
He *shall* do this
She *will* do this

We *can* do this
Ye *may* do this
They *must* do this
They *shall* do this
They *will* do this,

we cannot say—

I begin to <i>can</i>	They begin to <i>can</i>
Thou beginnest to <i>may</i>	Ye begin to <i>may</i>
He begins to <i>must</i>	They begin to <i>must</i>
He begins to <i>shall</i>	They begin to <i>shall</i>
She begins to <i>will</i> *	They begin to <i>will</i> ,

nor yet—

I am <i>cunning</i>	Thou art <i>maying</i>
He is <i>musting</i>	We are <i>skalling</i>

He is *uiling*.*

4 This creates difficulties when we come to the important investigation of their meaning as separate and independent words.

§ 720. The difficulties, however, are fewer with *will* than they are with *shall*.

a. *Will*.—Two facts help us here. We have the same combination of sounds in the word *will*=*volition*. We may say, indeed, that we have the same word; the same word used both as a substantive and as a verb. *He has so strong a will that whatsoever he wills he will do*.

The classical languages give us the roots *vol* (in *vol-o*) and *βουλ* (*búl*) in *βούλομαι* (*búloomai*). Hence, whatever may be the case with *shall*, its fellow-word *will* denotes not only the fact that something is predicted to take place, but that the cause by which it will be brought about is an act of *volition on the part of the agent who effects it*, such an agent being itself the originator of the action rather than the mere instrument through which certain external influences operate.

b. *Shall*.—Our aids here are inconsiderable. All that either comparative philology, or the search for collateral meanings leads to, as a *certainty*, is an approximate reconstruction of the original form. And here, without going beyond the pale of the German family of languages, we learn that the older form was *skal*—the present *h* representing, and having grown out of an original *k*. That the vowel of the original present was *i* is not so certain. Probably, however, it was so.

Let us deal with the word as if this were certain; the primitive form being *skil*-. Now—

Let its opposition, or contrast, to *will* lead us towards an inkling of its meaning. If *will* mean agency determined by

* Not, at least, in the senses we say, *He will be burnt*

the *volition* of the agent, *skill* may mean agency determined by causes acting from without upon and through the *agent*, the agent who may more properly be considered as an *instrument*

Let us say that *will* means *having the intention to do so and so*, whilst *shall* means *being in the condition to do so and so*

Can we go farther? I think we can. The only *certainty* that comparative philology gives us in the case of *shall* is the consonant *k* as the second letter of the root (*shal* for *shall*)

But it is highly probable that the substantive *skill* is as truly a derivative from the same root as *shall*, as *will* = *volo* is the same word as *will* in *I will speak* = *loquar*.

Now, such expressions as the *condition to do so and so*, and the *bias to do so-and so*, are by no means widely separated in meaning, inasmuch as the term *bias* implies external influence rather than internal resolve. These bring us to the participle *determined*, a word which, at first, suggests ideas akin to *will* rather than to *shall*. At first, I say it does this, because when we use such a phrase as *a determined fellow*, we raise the idea of a man of a strong *will*—of a wilful man who will have his own way, or, at least, of a man not easily diverted from his purpose by external accidents. On the other hand, however, the connection between *bias* and *determination* is close. Often as we use the word *determined* to express the moral quality of *strong-willed*, we fully as often use it to denote the effect of external agencies. We do this (for instance) when we talk of the conduct of a weak man being *determined by circumstances*.

The ideas of *determination* and *decision* are visibly allied to each other. A *decided* man is (in the first instance) one whom events have brought to a *decision*, just as a *determined* man is one whom events have brought to a *determination*. To *keep* in this state shows firmness of character, and hence the ordinary power of the word—

Decide, distinguish, differ.—I submit that the sequence of ideas here is transparently clear.

Now *sk-l* = *differ, distinguish, separate*.—It is the Norse word *skilja* so translated. It is also the English word in the phrase *what skills it?* = *what difference does it make?*

§ 721. Let *shall* be called the *predictive*, whilst *will* is the *promissive*, future.

The former simply states that a thing which has not yet happened, will happen hereafter; the forces that are to bring it about being indefinite.

The latter states not only that a thing which has not yet happened will happen hereafter, but also implies a certain amount of definitude in respect to the forces which will effect it. They are, by no means, forces brought from the whole universe of possibilities indefinitely, but forces of a specific character. They are engendered in the moral constitution (real or supposed) of the agent—real, when the agent is an actual rational being, supposed, when, without being actually rational, it has a certain amount of rationality attributed to it, in the way of personification on the part of the speaker, either conscious or unconscious.

This is what the two words denote. *Prediction* is the *genus*, *promise*, the *species*. All future things may be predicted; a portion of them only can be promised.

Promise implies a *promiser*, and a *promise* is a *prediction* fulfilling its own accomplishment. *Will* (*volition*) is an element in all such ideas.

I do not say that these two words are the best that can be applied. I only add that they are words already used, and that by Wallis, as will soon be seen.

Such are the preliminaries. What is their application?

The ordinary rule of the language of South (though not of North) Britain, the ordinary rule of the English (though not of the Scotch) is as follows.—

When simple prediction is intended, the predicative *shall* is used in the first person only, the auxiliary of the two other persons being the promissive *will*. Thus—

If three persons are in a house, and the house is on fire, although the conditions under which all the three are likely to be burnt are the same, the manner of expressing them is different. A, for instance, says of himself—

I *shall* be burnt

But of B and C, he says—

You *will* be burnt, and
He *will* be burnt

He also says of B and C collectively—

They *will* be burnt

Meanwhile—

A and B say of themselves—

We *shall* be burnt

This is the way that A and B speak when the burning depends upon causes external to themselves. To say the least of such a mode of expression as this, it is an inconsistent one.

But the inconsistency does not stop here, as we may see by an examination of the promissive forms of parlance, where the process is reversed.

If one out of three persons, choosing, for himself and fellows, between the stake and some other alternative, prefer to be burnt, the locution varies. A, for instance, says of himself,—

I will be burnt.

But of B and C he says—

*You shall be burnt, and
He shall be burnt.*

He also says of B and C collectively—

*They shall be burnt, or else
Ye shall be burnt*

Changing the expression—*shall* is predictive, and *will* is promissive in the first person only; whereas, in the second and third, *will* is predictive, and *shall* promissive.

§ 722. In the words of Wallis,—

In primis personis *shall* simpliciter *prædicentis* est, *will*, quasi *promittentis* aut *minantis*.

In secundis et tertiis personis, *shall* *promittentis* est aut *minantis* *will* simpliciter *prædicentis*

Uiam = *I shall burn*
Uies = *Thou wilt burn*
Uiet = *He will burn.*

Uiemus = *We shall burn*
Uretis = *Ye will burn*
Urent = *They will burn*

nempe, hoc futurum *prædico*.

2

I will burn.
Thou shalt burn
He shall burn

We will burn.
Ye shall burn
They shall burn.

Again—

Would et *should* illud indicant quod erat vel esset futurum cum hoc tantum discrimine *would* voluntatem innuit, seu agentis propensionem *should* simpliciter *futuritionem*—WALLIS, p. 107.

§ 723. Two extracts are now submitted to the reader, in the hope that they will lead him towards an approximate solution of these difficult complications—the first from a philologist, the second from a logician and mathematician.

The first is from Archdeacon Hare, who explains the locutions by a *usus ethicus* :—

There is an awful, irrepressible, and almost instinctive consciousness of the uncertainty of the future, and of our own powerlessness over it, which, in all cultivated languages, has silently and imperceptibly modified the modes of expression with regard to it and from a double kind of *litotes*, the one belonging to human nature generally, the other imposed by good-breeding on the individual, and urging him to veil the manifestations of his will, we are induced to frame all sorts of shifts for the sake of speaking with becoming modesty. This is the only way of accounting for the singular mixture of the two verbs *shall* and *will*, by which, as we have no auxiliary answering to the German *werden*, we express the future tense. Our future, or at least what answers to it, is *I shall, thou wilt, he will*. When speaking in the first person, we speak submissively when speaking to or of another, we speak courteously. In our older writers—for instance, in our translation of the Bible—*shall* is applied to all three persons we had not then reached that stage of politeness which shrinks from the appearance even of speaking compulsorily of another. On the other hand, the Scotch use *will* in the first person, that is, as a nation, they have not acquired that particular shade of good-breeding which shrinks from thrusting itself forward.

§ 724. The second is from Professor De Morgan, writing with Archdeacon Hare's doctrine under his special consideration :—

The matter to be explained is the synonymous character of *will* in the first person with *shall* in the second and third, and of *shall* in the first person with *will* in the second and third. *shall* (1) and *will* (2, 3) are called *predictive*, *shall* (2, 3) and *will* (1) *promissive*. The suggestion now proposed will require four distinctive names.

Archdeacon Hare's *usus ethicus* is taken from the brighter side of human nature—"When speaking in the first person we speak submissively, when speaking to or of another, we speak courteously." This explains *I shall, thou wilt*, but I cannot think it explains *I will, thou shalt*. It often happens that *you will*, with a persuasive tone, is used courteously for something next to, if not quite, *you shall*. The present explanation is taken from the darker side, and it is to be feared that the *a priori* probabilities are in its favour.

In introducing the common mode of stating the future tenses, grammar has proceeded as if she were more than a formal science. She has no more business to collect together *I shall, thou wilt, he will*, than to do the same with *I rule, thou art ruled, he is ruled*.

It seems to be the natural disposition of man to think of his own volition in two of the following categories, and of another man's in the other two

Compelling, non-compelling, restrained, non-restrained

The *ego*, with reference to the *non-ego*, is apt, thinking of himself to propound the alternative, "Shall I compel, or shall I leave him to do as he likes?" so that, thinking of the other, the alternative is, "shall he be restrained, or shall he be left to his own will?" Accordingly, the express introduction of his own will is likely to have reference to compulsion, in case of opposition, the express introduction of the will of another, is likely to

mean no more than the gracious permission of the *ego* to let *non-ego* do as he likes. Correlatively, the suppression of reference to his own will, and the adoption of a simply predictive form on the part of the *ego*, is likely to be the mode with which, when the person is changed, he will associate the idea of another having his own way, while the suppression of reference to the will of the *non-ego* is likely to infer restraint produced by the predominant will of the *ego*.

Occasionally, the will of the *non-ego* is referred to as under restraint in modern times. To *I will not*, the answer is sometimes *you shall*, meaning, in spite of the will—sometimes *you will*, meaning that the *will* will be changed by fear or sense of the inutilty of resistance.

§ 725. Adopting the limitation suggested in respect to the functions of the grammarian, I would remark that the words *ego* and *non-ego* do not exactly denote *the will of the speaker*, and the *will of some one else*, inasmuch as in many of the locutions there is no notion of *will* at all. *Ego* rather means *action arising from an internal impulse*, whilst *non-ego* implies *action arising from circumstances external to the agent*. With *ego* the *willer* is the *primum mobile*; with *non-ego* the actor is *an instrument rather than an original and spontaneous agent*.

According, then, as one of these two ideas predominate, the use of *will* or *shall* is determined. In subordinating the *will* to the *shall* the *usus ethicus* has an influence. When the agency of external influences is subordinated to the *will* of the actor, the converse takes place, and the speaker expresses himself according to his feeling of power over them. This may be called the *usus potentialis*.

§ 726. Between these two there is a debateable ground, of which it is likely enough that the Scotch and early English writers may have apportioned a full share in the way of potentiality, the later English authors inclining to the *usus ethicus*.

How far this is done on either side I cannot say. I doubt whether the current rule is so absolute as it is said to be. The very extreme instance of "I *will* be drowned, no one *shall* pull me out," may or may not be a real one. At any rate, it is generally given to an Irishman. How a Scotchman would analyze certain expressions, I cannot say. I can only say that Englishmen sometimes speak and write *more Scotico*. Of this I can give an instance out of my own writings. The chapter upon the Stages of the English Language contains (in the earlier editions of the present work) the following sentence.—"An extract from Mr. Hallam shall close the present section and introduce the next."

This is from the pen of an Englishman, of Lincolnshire, South Bucks, and Cambridge, who, at the date of the extract, had never been north of the Humber, not, at least, in Great Britain. As such, we must take it as we find it—as a sample of English. It was written unconsciously and *currente calamo*. It expressed the state of mind in which he was in. I have seen it, however, quoted as an instance of bad English. Coming, as it did, from a professor of the English language, it was a well-chosen example, *if a true one*. But the more I have looked at the context, the more satisfied I am that it is an accurate expression. All that it violates is a rule ill drawn-up. Had the sentence been the first in the work, the first in the chapter, or the first on the subject, *will* would have been the proper word. It would denote what I, as the *primum mobile*, meant to do. But it refers to what precedes rather than to what follows. By these *pre*-cedents it is (so to say) conditioned. It formed part of an argument, to which argument I, the writer, was so far bound as to be an instrument rather than an originator. I was not R. G. Latham doing as I thought fit with my own, but the servant of my premises. The more I analyze the text and context the more I am satisfied that this is the case. At any rate, I am an Englishman writing English.

I will now (here I say *will* because the forthcoming remarks are additions to my previous argument rather than necessary parts of it, and I am comparatively free to either insert or omit them) make another extract from a professor (and, I may add, a master) of the English language. But he is a North Briton, Mr. Masson. He writes, "I could count up and name at this moment, some four or five men to whose personal influence, experienced as a student, I owe more than to any books, and of whom, while life lasts, I will always think with gratitude." * Assuredly, an Englishman would have written '*shall* always think.' Why would he? Not because he wrote more correctly, but because he expressed a different idea. Mr. Masson speaks direct from the feelings engendered by the kindness and services of the former teachers. He speaks from his own mind, so that he not only gives us their action on himself, but his own reaction on them. He might, however, have done differently. He might have spoken from the simple action of them, keeping the reaction of his own mind in the background. An English

* Lecture delivered at University College, London —October, 1854

writer would have done so, and have said *shall* accordingly. The grammar of both is good—for grammar only tells us how to express our thoughts in language. It does not tell us what to think. Now, the Englishman and Scotchman, in the matter of *shall* and *will*, think differently. Why they do so is another matter. The Englishman subordinates himself to the circumstances that determine his actions. The Scotchman subordinates the circumstances to himself. The one carries the line of causality through his own mind before he takes it up. The other takes it up before his mind has re-acted on it.

Without asking whether *will* or *shall* be the better reading in the following extract, let us ask what each means.—

Pity, kind gentlefolks, friends of humanity!

Keen blows the wind and the night's coming on,
Give me some food for my mother and charity,

Give me some food and then I $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{will} \\ \text{shall} \end{array} \right\}$ be gone.

Here—

Will be gone means *I will trouble you no more*

Shall be gone means *You will get rid of me*

§ 727. *Ought, would, &c., used as presents.*—These words are not in the predicament of *shall*

They are *present* in power, and *past* in form. So is *shall*.

But they are not, like *shall*, perfect forms; *i. e.* they have no natural present element in them

They are *aorist* präterites. Nevertheless, they have a present sense.

So had their equivalents in Greek: $\epsilon\chi\rho\eta\nu = \chi\rho\eta$, $\epsilon\delta\epsilon\iota = \delta\epsilon\iota$;
 $\pi\rho\sigma\sigma\eta\kappa\epsilon\nu = \pi\rho\sigma\eta\kappa\epsilon\iota$.

In Latin, too, *would* was often not represented by either *volo* or *volebam*, but by *velim*.

I believe that the *usus ethicus* is at the bottom of this construction.

The assertion of *duty* or *obligation* is one of those assertions of which men like to soften the expressions: *should*, *ought*.

So is the expression of *power*, as denoted by *may* or *can*—*might, could*.

Very often when we say *you should* (or *ought to*) *do this*, we leave to be added by implication—but *you do not*.

Very often when we say *I could* (or *might*) *do*, this we leave to be added by implication—but *I do not exert my power*.

Now, what is left undone by the *present* element in this assertion, viz the duty to do it, or the power of doing it, constitutes a past element in it; since the power (or duty) is, in relation to the performance, a cause—insufficient, indeed, but still antecedent. This hypothesis is suggested, rather than asserted.

By substituting the words *I am bound*, for *I ought*, we may see the expedients to which this present use of the præterite forces us.

I am bound to do this now = *I owe to do this now*. However, we do not say *owe*, but *ought*

Hence, when we wish to say *I was bound to do this* two years ago, we cannot say *I ought (owed) to do this*, &c, since, *ought* is already used in a present sense.

We therefore say, instead, *I ought to have done this* two years ago; which has a similar, but by no means an identical meaning.

I was bound to pay two years ago, means *two years ago I was under an obligation to make a payment, either then or at some future time*.

I was bound to have paid, &c., means *I was under an obligation to have made a payment*.

If we use the word *ought*, this difference cannot be expressed.

Common people sometimes say, *you had not ought to do so and so*, and they have a reason for saying it.

The Latin language is more logical. It says not *debet factum fuisse*, but *debit fieri*.

CHAPTER XIX.

THE SYNTAX OF ADVERBS.

§ 728. AN adverb is a word incapable of forming, by itself, a term, but capable of forming part of one; in which case it is connected with the verb—whence its name, *e. g.* the sun *shines brightly*.

The syntax of the adverb is simpler than that of any other part of speech, excepting, perhaps, that of the adjective.

Adverbs have no concord.

Neither have they any government.

The position of an adverb is, in respect to matters of syntax, pre-eminently parenthetic; *i. e.* it may be omitted without injuring the construction. *He is fighting—now; he was fighting—then; he fights—bravely; I am—almost—tired, &c.*

§ 729. By referring to the chapter on the Adjectives, we shall find that the neuter adjective is frequently converted into an adverb by deflection. As any neuter adjective may be so deflected, we may justify such expressions as *full* (for *fully*), *conspicuous* (for *conspicuously*), and *peculiar* (for *peculiarly*). We are not, however, bound to imitate everything we can justify.

§ 730. The termination *-ly* was originally adjectival. At present it is a derivational syllable, by which we can convert an adjective into an adverb—*brave, bravely*. When, however, the adjective ends in *-ly* already, the formation is awkward. *I eat my daily bread* is unexceptionable English; *I eat my bread daily* is exceptionable. One of two things must here take place: the two syllables *-ly* are packed into one (the full expression being *dui-li-ly*), or else the construction is that of a neuter adjective.

§ 731. It has been remarked that, in expressions like *He sleeps the sleep of the righteous*, the construction is adverbial. So it is in expressions like *He walked a mile, It weighs a pound*. The ideas expressed by *mile* and *pound* are not the names of anything that serves as either object or instrument to the verb. They only denote the *manner* of the action, and define the meaning of the verb.

§ 732. *From whence, from thence*—This is an expression which, if it have not taken root in our language, is likely to do so. It is an instance of excess of expression in the way of syntax; the *-ce* denoting direction *from* a place, and the preposition doing the same. It is not so important to determine what this construction *is*, as to suggest what it is *not*. It is *not* an instance of an adverb governed by a preposition. If the two words be dealt with as logically separate, *whence* (or *thence*) must be a noun = *which place* (or *that place*), just as *from then till now* = *from that time till this*. But if (which is the better view) the two words be dealt with as one (*i. e.* as an improper compound) the preposition *from* has lost its natural power and become the element of an adverb.

CHAPTER XX.

SYNTAX OF PREPOSITIONS

§ 733. ALL prepositions govern an oblique case. If a word fail to do this, it fails to be a preposition. In the first of the two following sentences the word *up* is a preposition, in the second an adverb :—

- 1 *I climbed up the tree*
- 2 *I climbed up*

§ 734. All prepositions in English precede the noun which they govern. *I climbed up the tree*—never *I climbed the tree up*. This is a matter not of government, but of collocation. The same, however, is the case in most languages ; and, from the frequency of its occurrence, the term *pre-position* (or *prefix*) has originated. Nevertheless, it is by no means a philological necessity. In more languages than one the prepositions are *post-positive*, *i. e.* they follow their noun.

No preposition, in the present English, governs a genitive case. This remark is made because expressions like *the part of the body*=*pars corporis*,—*a piece of the bread*=*portio panis*, make it appear as if the preposition *of* did so. The true expression is, that the preposition *of*, followed by an objective case, is equivalent, in many instances, to the genitive case of the classical languages.

It is not so safe to say, in the present English, that no preposition governs a dative. The expression *give it him* is good English ; and it is also equivalent to the Latin *da ei*. But we may also say *give it to him*. Now, the German *zu*=*to* governs a dative case, and in Anglo-Saxon, the preposition *to*, when prefixed to the infinitive mood, required the case that followed it to be a dative.

§ 735. When the infinitive mood is used as the subject of a preposition, *i. e.* as a nominative case, we cannot allow to the preposition *to*, by which it is preceded, any separate existence whatever,—*to rise*=*rising* ; *to err*=*error*. Here the preposition must, for the purposes of syntax, be considered as incorporated with the noun, just like an inseparable inflection. As such, it may be preceded by another preposition. The following example, although a Grecism, illustrates this :—

Yet not to have been dpt in Lethe's lake,
Could save the son of Thetis *from to die*.

Akin to this, but not the same, is the so-called vulgarism, consisting of the use of the preposition *for*; as in *I am ready for to go*

§ 736 Composition converts prepositions into adverbs. Whether we say *upstanding* or *standing-up*, we express the manner in which an action takes place, and not the relation between two substantives. The so-called prepositional compounds in Greek (*ἀναβαίνω*, *ἀποθνῆσσω*, &c) are all adverbial. Prepositions may be called Transitive Adverbs.

CHAPTER XXI.

THE SYNTAX OF THE NEGATIVE.

§ 737 WHEN the verb is in the infinitive mood, the negative precedes it—*Not to advance is to retreat.*

When the verb is not in the infinitive mood, the negative follows it—*He advanced not I cannot*

This rule is absolute. It only seems to precede the verb in such expressions as *I do not advance*, *I cannot advance*, *I have not advanced*, &c. However, the words *do*, *can*, and *have*, are no infinitives; and it consequently follows them. The word *advance* is an infinitive, and it consequently precedes it. Wallis's rule makes an equivalent statement, although differently—

Adverbium negandi *not* (non) verbo postponitur (nempe auxiliari primo si adsit, aut si non adsit auxiliare, verbo principali): alius tamen orationis partibus præfigi solet—P 113.

That the negative is rarely used, except with the auxiliary *do*—in other words, that the presence of a negative converts a simple form like *it burneth not* into the circumlocution *it does not burn*—is a fact in the practice of the English language. The syntax is the same in either expression.

§ 738. What may be called the *distribution* of the negative is pretty regular in English. Thus, when the word *not* comes between an indicative, imperative, or subjunctive mood and an infinitive verb, it almost always is taken with the word which it follows—*I can not eat* may mean either *I can—not eat* (i. e. *I can abstain*), or *I cannot—eat* (i. e. *I am unable to*

eat) ; but, as stated above, it *almost* always has the latter signification.

But not *always*. In Byron's *Deformed Transformed* we find the following lines :—

Clay ' not dead, but soulless,
Though no mortal man would choose thee,
An immortal no less
Deigns *not* to refuse thee

Here *not to refuse* = *to accept* ; and is probably a Grecism. *To not refuse* would, perhaps, be better.

The next expression is still more foreign to the English idiom —

Yet *not* to have been dipped in Lethe's lake
Could save the son of Thetis from to die

Here *not* is to be taken with *could*.

§ 739 In the present English, two negatives make an affirmative *I have not not seen him* = *I have seen him*. In Greek this was not the case. *Dux aut plures negative apud Græcos vehementius negant* is a well-known rule. The Anglo-Saxon idiom differed from the English and coincided with the Greek. The French negative is only apparently double ; words like *point, pas*, mean *not not*, but *at all*. *Je ne parle pas* = *I not speak at all*, not *I not speak no*.

§ 740. *Questions of appeal*.—All questions imply want of information ; want of information may then imply doubt ; doubt, perplexity ; and perplexity the absence of an alternative. In this way, what are called *questions of appeal*, are, practically speaking, negatives. *What should I do ?* when asked in extreme perplexity, means that nothing can well be done. In the following passage we have the presence of a question instead of a negative :—

Or hear'st thou (*clius*, Lat) rather, pure æthereal stream,
Whose fountain who (*no one*) shall tell ?

Paradise Lost.

§ 741. The following extract* illustrates a curious and minute distinction, which the author shows to have been current when Wycliffe wrote, but which was becoming obsolete when Sir Thomas More wrote. It is an extract from that writer against Tyndall.

* *Philological Museum* (vol ii).

I would not here note by the way that Tyndall here translated *no* for *nay*, for it is but a tifle and mistaking of the Englishe woide saving that ye shoulde see that he whych in two so plain Englishe wordes, and so common as in *naye* and *no* can not tell when he should take the one and when the tother, is not for translating into Englishe a man very mete For the use of these two wordes in aunsweing a question is this *No* aunswereth the question framed by the affirmative As for ensample if a manne should aske Tindall himselve ys an heretike meete to translate Holy Scriptuie into Englishe? lo to thys question if he will aunswere trew Englishe, he must aunswere *nay* and not *no* But and if the question be asked hym thus lo is not an heretike mete to translate Holy Scriptuie into Englishe? To this question if he will aunswere trewe Englishe, he must aunswere *no* and not *nay* And a lyke difference is there betwene these two adverbs *ye* and *yes* For if the question bee framed unto Tindall by the affirmative in thys fashion If an heretique falsely translate the New Testament into Englishe, to make his false heresyse seem the word of Godde, be his bokes worthy to be burned? To this questyon asked in thys wyse, yf he will aunswere true Englishe, he must aunswere *ye* and not *yes* But now if the question be asked him thus lo, by the negative If an heretike falsely translate the Newe Testament into Englishe to make his false heresyse seme the word of God, be not hys bokes well worthy to be burned? To thys question in thys fashion framed if he will aunswere trewe Englishe, he may not aunswere *ye* but he must aunswere *yes*, and say, yes many be they, bothe the translation and the translatour, and al that wyl hold wyth them

CHAPTER XXII.

THE CASE ABSOLUTE.

§ 742 NOUNS standing absolutely are of two sorts: (1.) Those originating in an accusative; (2.) those originating in a dative, case

In expressing *distance* or *duration*, either in *time* or *space*, we use the noun absolutely; as *he walked ten miles* (*i. e. the space of ten miles*); *he stood three hours* (*i. e. the space of three hours*). Here the words *stood* and *walk* are intransitive; so that it is not by them that the words *miles* and *hours* are governed. They stand absolutely. Although not distinguished in form from the nominative case, they are not nominatives. They are virtually accusatives; and when, in an older stage of the Gothic languages, the accusative was distinguished from the nominative, they appeared in the form of the accusative.

§ 743. *The door being open, the steed was stolen—the sun having arisen, the labourers proceeded to work.*—In these sen-

tences, the words *door* and *sun* stand absolutely; and, as the words *being open*, and *having arisen*, agree with them, they, also, do the same. In English *substantives*, where there is no distinction between the nominative and the objective cases, it is of no practical importance to inquire as to the particular case in which the words like *door* and *sun* stand. In the English *pronouns*, however, where there is a distinction between the nominative and objective cases, this inquiry must be made.

1. *He made the best proverbs of any one, him only excepted:*

2. *He made the best proverbs of any one, he only excepted*

Which of these two expressions is correct? This we can decide only by determining in what case nouns standing absolutely in the way that *door*, *sun*, and *him* (or *he*), now stand, were found in that stage of our language when the nominative and objective cases were distinguished by separate forms. In Anglo-Saxon this case was the *dative*, as *up-a-sprungenne sunnan*=*the sun having arisen*. In Anglo-Saxon, also, *him* was a dative case, so that the case out of which expressions like the ones in question originated, was dative. Hence, of the two phrases, *him excepted* and *he excepted*, the former is the one which is *historically* correct. It is also the form which is *logically* correct. Almost all absolute expressions of this kind have a reference, more or less direct, to the *cause* of the action denoted. In sentences like *the stable door being open, the horse was stolen*,—*the sun having arisen the labourers got up to work*, this idea of either a cause, or a coincidence like a cause, is pretty clear.

In the sentence *he made the best proverbs of any one, him only excepted*, the idea of a cause is less plain. Still it exists. The existence of *him* (*i. e.* the particular person mentioned as pre-eminent in proverb-making) is the cause or reason why he (*i. e.* the person spoken of as the second-best proverb-maker) was not the *very best* of proverb-makers. Now the practice of language in general teaches us this, *viz.* that where there is no proper Instrumental case, expressive of cause or agency, the Ablative is the case that generally supplies its place; and where there is no Ablative, the Dative. Hence the Latins had their Ablative, the Anglo-Saxons their Dative, Absolute. The Genitive Absolute in Greek is explicable upon other principles. In spite, however, both of history and logic, the so-called best authorities are in favour of the use of the Nominative case in the absolute construction.

In all absolute constructions of the kind in question one of the words is either a Substantive or a Pronoun, the other a *Participle*. The reason of this is in the fact of all such absolute constructions indicating either an *action* or a *state*.

CHAPTER XXIII.

SYNTAX OF COMPLEX SENTENCES.

§ 744 SYNTAX deals with (1) the connection of words, and (2) the connection of propositions. The Syntax that deals with the connection of words, and the structure of simple propositions, has already come under notice. The Syntax that deals with the connection of propositions now commands attention. Attention, too, must be given to the word *connection*. It by no means follows that because we find a long list of propositions following each other, there is a connection between them. Like marbles in a bag, to use an old illustration, they may touch without cohering; having as little relation to each other, as so many different essays or chapters. This is the case with proverbs, riddles, and the like, where each sentence constitutes a whole. In ordinary composition, however, this extreme isolation is rare. In ordinary composition the chances are, that out of three propositions, the middle one will have a double relation; one with its predecessor, one with its follower. This relation, however, need not be grammatical.

Laying, then, out of our account those propositions, which, though they may stand in juxta-position with one another, have no *grammatical* connection, we come to the consideration of those sentences in which there is not only two (or more) propositions, but, also a connecting link between them; or, if not this, something in the nature of the one, which implies, or presupposes, the other. This is the case with questions and answers. But though questions and answers, along with a few other details of minor importance, come under this division of Syntax; they, by no means, constitute the most important part of it. The most important part of it is constituted by the Relative Pronouns and the Conjunctions. But it must be remembered that in the way of Etymology, the Relatives and the Interrogatives are identical.

This is one affinity. That of the Relative Pronouns with the

Conjunction is equally clear. Though expressions like *the man as goes to market* instead of *the man who goes to market* are exceptionable, there is a reason for their having an existence. What they may be, belongs to other investigations. At the present, we are looking for illustrations only. Nor are the most unexceptionable ones far off. The Latin language gives us the relations of *quod* and *ut*, the Latin and Greek combined those of *ut* and *ὅτι*: with which we may compare our own *that*; a word which originally a Demonstrative Pronoun, is next a relative, and, finally, a conjunction.

- 1 *That* is right
- 2 The man *that* has just left
- 3 I fear *that* I shall be late

Lastly, the Relative Pronouns and the Conjunction agree in this—they agree in introducing the Syntax of a new Mood—a Mood which is sometimes called the Conjunctive, sometimes the Subjunctive, and sometimes the Potential. Whatever we call it, it has this characteristic, viz that *it can only exist in the second of two connected propositions, the connection between them being effected by either a Relative Pronoun or a Conjunction*. Where neither of these exist, there is no Conjunctive, Subjunctive, or Potential Mood.

Such is a brief sketch of the reasons for considering the proposed divisions of our Syntax natural;—a division, however, upon which, after the Conjunctions have been dealt with, a little more will be said.

CHAPTER XXIV.

ON THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUN.

§ 745. QUESTIONS are of two sorts, direct and oblique.

Direct —Who is he?

Oblique —What do you say that he is?

All difficulties about the cases of the interrogative pronoun may be determined by framing an answer, and observing the case of the word which gives it. This, however, should be done by a pronoun, as, by so doing, we distinguish the accusative case from the nominative. If necessary, it should be made in

full. Thus the full answer to *whom do you say that they seek?* is, *I say that they seek him.*

DIRECT

Qu Who is this?—Ans I

Qu Whose is this?—Ans His

Qu Whom do you seek?—Ans Him

OBLIQUE.

Qu Who do you say that it is?—Ans He

Qu Whose do you say that it is?—Ans His

Qu Whom do you say that they seek?—Ans Him

§ 746. Nevertheless, such expressions as *whom do they say that it is?* are common, especially in oblique questions.

And he axed hem and seide, *whom* seien the people that I am? Ther answereden and seiden, John Baptist—and he seide to him, But *whom* seien ye that I am?—WYCLIFFE, *Luke* x

Tell me in sadness *whom* she is you love.

Romeo and Juliet, i 1.

And as John fulfilled his course, he said, *whom* think ye that I am?

Acts xiii. 25

This confusion, however, is exceptionable.

§ 747 When the Copula precedes the Predicate, the question is Categorical, and its answer is *Yes* or *No*.—Question. *Is John at home?* Answer *Yes* or *no*, as the case may be

When the Predicate precedes the Copula the question is Indefinite, and the answer may be anything whatever. To *where is John?* we may answer *at home, abroad, in the garden, in London, I do not know, &c, &c.*

CHAPTER XXV.

THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 748. It is necessary that the relative be in the same *gender* as the antecedent It is necessary that the relative be in the same *number* as the antecedent. It is *not* necessary that the relative be in the same *case* with the antecedent.

1 John, *who* trusts me, comes here

2 John, *whom* I trust, comes here

3 John, *whose* confidence I possess, comes here

4 I trust John, *who* trusts me

The reason why the relative must agree with its antecedent in both number and gender, whilst it need not agree with it in case, is found in the following observations

1 All sentences containing a relative contain two verbs—*John* (1) *who trusts in me* (2) *comes here*

2. Two verbs express two actions—(1) *trust*, (2) *come*.

3 Whilst, however, the actions are two in number, the person or thing which does, or suffers, them is single—*John*.

4 *He* (*she* or *it*) is singular, *ex vi termini*. The relative expresses the *identity* between the subjects (or objects) of the two actions Thus *who* = *John*, or is another name for *John*.

5 Things and persons that are one and the same, are of one and the same gender The *John* *who trusts* is necessarily of the same gender with the *John* *who comes*

6. Things and persons that are one and the same, are of one and the same number The number of *Johns* *who trust*, is the same as the number of *Johns* *who come*. Both these elements of concord are immutable.

7. But a third element of concord is not immutable. The person or thing that is an agent in the one part of the sentence, may be the object of an action in the other. The *John* *whom* I *trust* may *trust* me also. Hence—

(a) I trust John—*John* the object.

(b) John trusts me—*John* the agent

As the relative is only the antecedent in another form, it may change its case according to the construction.

(1) I trust John—(2) *John* trusts me

(1) I trust John—(2) *He* trusts me

(1) I trust John—(2) *Who* trusts me

(1) John trusts me—(2) I trust *John*.

(1) John trusts me—(2) I trust *him*

(1) John trusts me—(2) I trust *whom*

(1) John trusts me—(2) *Whom* I trust.

(1) John—(2) *Whom* I trust—(1) trusts me

§ 749. (1.) *The books I want are here*.—This is a specimen of a true ellipsis. In all such phrases in *full*, there are *three* essential elements; (1) the first proposition; as *the books are here*; (2) the second proposition; as *I want*; (3.) the connecting link—here wanting.

§ 750. When there are two words in a clause, each of which

is capable of being an antecedent, the relative refers to the latter.—*Solomon the son of David who slew Goliath is unexceptionable.* Not so, however, *Solomon the son of David who built the temple* So far as the latter expression is defensible it is defensible on the ground that *Solomon-the-son-of-David* is a single many-worded name

§ 751. Should we say *it is I, your master, who command,* or *it is I, your master, who commands you?*—The sentence contains two propositions.

It is I

Who commands you.

where the word *master* is (so to say) undistributed It may belong to either clause of the sentence, *i. e.* the whole sentence may be divided into either—

It is I your master—

or

Your master who commands you

This is the first point to observe. The next is, that the verb in the second clause is governed not by either the personal pronoun or the substantive, but by the relative *who*.

And this brings us to the following question:—which of the two antecedents does the *relative* represent? *I* or *master*?

This may be answered by saying that—

1. When two antecedents are in the same proposition, the relative agrees with the first. Thus—

It is I your master—

Who command you.

2. When two antecedents are in different propositions, the relative agrees with the second. Thus—

1. *It is I—*

2 *Your master who commands you.*

This, however, is not all. What determines whether the two antecedents shall be in the same or in different propositions? I believe that the following rules for what may be called *the distribution of the substantive antecedent* will bear criticism.

1. When there is any natural connection between the substantive antecedent and the verb governed by the relative, the antecedent belongs to the second clause. Thus, in the expression just quoted, the word *master* is logically connected with

the word *command*; and this fact makes the expression, *It is I, your master, who commands you*, the better of the two.

2 When there is no natural connection between the substantive antecedent and the verb governed by the relative, the antecedent belongs to the first clause. *It is I, John, who command (not commands) you.*

To recapitulate. the train of reasoning has been as follows:—

1. The person of the second verb is the person of the relative.

2. The person of the relative is that of one of two antecedents.

3 Of such two antecedents the relative agrees with the one which stands in the same proposition with itself

4. Which position is determined by the connection or want of connection between the substantive antecedent and the verb governed by the relative.

The relations of the Relative Pronoun to the Subjunctive will be considered after the Syntax of the Conjunctions has been exhibited.

NOTE.

I am not sure that this is the true doctrine I let it stand, however, because it gives a true distinction It may be better, however, to hold that ordinary substantives like *master* and *John*, instead of being, as is generally held, of the third person, are of the person of the pronoun with which they stand in apposition, and that they are only of the third person when they stand alone, or with *he*, *she*, or *it* before them They are, however, so often in this predicament, that it not only seems as if they were so essentially, but it is somewhat difficult to conceive them otherwise However, if the doctrine of this note be true, *master*, as long as it is in apposition with *I*, is of the same person as *I*. And so is *John* If so, expressions like *it is I, your master, who commands you*, are only *excusable*—excusable on the ground of the apposition being, to some extent, concealed

CHAPTER XXVI.

THE SYNTAX OF CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 752. NOTWITHSTANDING their apparent unimportance, few parts of speech require closer consideration than the Conjunctions. The logical view of their character is instructive Their

history is equally interesting and clear. Finally, above all other parts of speech, they exhibit the phenomenon of convertibility. Nor is this doctrine as to their importance new; although, in the present work, where the division of Syntax into that of the simple and that of the complex proposition is insisted on, they may, on a superficial view, appear to take undue prominence. In all grammars, however, they are important. although in some their importance is disguised. Both the Latin and the Greek philologues write largely upon the syntax of the Subjunctive Mood; and, it cannot be added, that what they thus write is either the easiest or the most fascinating portion of the works wherein it appears. It appertains, however, to the department of Mood, and, so doing, comes under the notice of the Verb. Yet where is there a Subjunctive Mood without either a conjunction or a Relative Pronoun? I do not say that this distribution of the functions of the Conjunctions is wrong. I only say that it disguises much of their character. That the Syntax of a certain Mood, whether Subjunctive or Conjunctive, depends, largely, upon Conjunctions is clear.

§ 753 Conjunctions connect Terms. Sometimes the terms these connect lie in one and the same proposition—as, *all men are black or white*. Sometimes they lie in different ones, as—

The day is bright

because

The sun shines.

Of these two connections the former is so scarce that it needs only to be noticed. The latter is proportionally common. Practically speaking, it gives us ninety-nine hundredths of our Syntax. This enables us to treat Conjunctions as if they connected Propositions only. At any rate, nearly all our rules apply to such as do so.

§ 754. To know the number and nature of all possible Conjunctions we must know all the different ways in which two propositions can be related to one another. Thus, the sun may shine, and the heat of the weather may result from its so doing. In such a case the two propositions (1) *the weather is hot* and (2) *the sun shines* are linked together as cause and effect. But this union is double; inasmuch as we may infer the cause from the effect or the effect from the cause; saying, in the first case,—

*The weather is hot
because
The sun shines,*

and, in the second,

*The sun shines
therefore
The weather is hot.*

Again, of two propositions one may contain an objection to the other; as

*The weather is warm to-day,
but
It will not be so to-morrow,*

or, one proposition may announce an act, and the intention with which it was done. as

*I do this
that
I may succeed*

There are several such relations, and several such links that connect them. The number, however, is, by no means, great, neither has it been uninvestigated. On the contrary, the Conjunctions have been classified, and named—those that connect causes and effects having one name, those that imply objections another—and so on.

*I am pleased,
because
This has happened,
but
I should have been disappointed.
if
It had fallen out otherwise,
and
I think
that,
Even now, some of my real
or
Supposed friends will be more surprised
than
Satisfied with the arrangement*

§ 755. Conjunctions which connect two or more Terms are called Copulative, as *and*.

Conjunctions which connect one of two Terms are called Disjunctive; as *or*. Disjunctives are either true Disjunctives or Subdisjunctives. A true Disjunctive separates things. When

we say *the sun or the moon is shining*, we separate two different objects, one of which shines by day, the other by night. Subdisjunctives separate *names*. When we say *Victoria, or the Queen of England, is our sovereign*, we speak of the same object under different names

§ 756. The idea expressed by a Copulative may be strengthened and made clearer by the addition of the words *each, both, all*, or the like. Thus, we may say, *both sun and moon are shining*, and *Venus, Jupiter, and the Dogstar are all visible*.

The idea expressed by a Disjunctive may be strengthened and made clearer by the addition of *either*. We may say, *either the sun or the moon is shining*

The idea expressed by a Subdisjunctive may be strengthened and made clearer by the phrase *in other words*. We may say *Queen Victoria, in other words, the Queen of England, &c.*

In all these cases, the words *both, &c, either, &c, and in other words, &c*, are no true conjunctions. They strengthen the Conjunction. The Conjunction, however, exists without them.

§ 757. *Or* and *either* have their corresponding Negatives—*nor* and *neither*. *I will either come or send* is right. So is *I will neither come nor send*. But *I will neither come or send* is wrong. When a question is either asked or implied, *whether* takes the place of *either*. Words like *either, &c.*, are generally treated as Conjunctions. This, however, they are not. The most that can be said of them is, that they form part of certain Conjunctional expressions. They never stand alone. Meanwhile, the words with which they correspond can, as a general rule, do without them. We say *this or that, mine or his*, quite as correctly as *either this or that, neither mine nor his*. If, then, they are not Conjunctions, what are they? *Both* is decidedly a Pronoun. *Either*, however, *neither*, and *whether*, seem to be both Pronouns and Adverbs. When *either* means *one out of two*, it is a Pronoun. When it means *in the way of an alternative*, it is an Adverb.

§ 758. Other Conjunctions are Causal, Illative, Final, and Conditional.

Causals give the cause of a given effect

*The day is warm
because
The sun shines*

Illatives give the effect of a given cause.

*The sun shines,
therefore
The day is warm*

Finals give the object for which a given action is effected.

*I do this
that
You may follow my example*

Conditional—

*The night will be fine
if
the stars shine*

Than implies Comparison *But* is Adversative

§ 759. The Syntax of the Causals and Illatives requires no special notice Not so, that of the (1) Copulatives, (2) Disjunctives, (3) Comparatives, (4) Adversatives, and, above all, the Conditionals

§ 760 *And*, in such expressions as *the sun and moon shine*—As a general rule, it is the Copulative Conjunctions which give compendiums of the sort in question Copulatives require the Plural, Disjunctives the Singular, number

§ 761 *The concord of persons*—A difficulty that occurs frequently in the Latin language is rare in English In expressions like *ego et ille*, followed by a verb, there arises a question as to the person in which that verb shall be used. Is it to be in the first person in order to agree with *ego*, or in the third in order to agree with *ille*? For the sake of laying down a rule upon these and similar points, the classical grammarians arrange the persons (as they do the genders) according to their *dignity*, making the word agree with the most *worthy*. In respect to persons, the first is more worthy than the second, and the second more worthy than the third. Hence, they said—

*Ego et Balbus sustulimus manus
Tu et Balbus sustulistis manus*

Now in English, the plural form is the same for all three persons Hence we say *I and you are friends*, *you and I are friends*, *I and he are friends*, &c, so that, for the practice of language, the question as to the relative dignity of the three persons is a matter of indifference Nevertheless, it may occur even in English Whenever two or more pronouns of different persons, and of the *singular* number, follow each other *disjunc-*

tively, the question of concord arises *I or you,—you or he,—he or I* I believe that, in these cases, the rule is as follows. —

1. Whenever the word *either* or *neither* precedes the pronouns, the verb is in the third person *Either you or I is in the wrong—neither you nor I is in the wrong*

2 Whenever the disjunctive is simple, *i e* unaccompanied with the word *either* or *neither*, the verb agrees with the *first* of the two pronouns.

I or he am in the wrong

He or I is in the wrong

Thou or he art in the wrong

He or thou is in the wrong

§ 762 The Syntax of *that* gives what is called the *succession of tenses*. Whenever it expresses intention, and, consequently, connects two verbs, the second of which denotes an act which takes place *after* the first, the verbs in question must be in the same tense.

I do this that I may gain by it

I did this that I might gain by it.

In the Greek language this is expressed by a difference of mood, the subjunctive being the construction equivalent to *may*, the optative to *might*. The Latin idiom coincides with the English. A little consideration will show that this rule is absolute. For a man *to be doing* one action (in present time) in order that some other action may *follow* it (in past time) is to reverse the order of cause and effect. To do anything in A.D. 1851, that something may result from it in 1850 is a contradiction; and so it is to say *I do this that I might gain by it*. The reasons against the converse construction are nearly, if not equally, cogent. To have done anything at any *previous* time in order that a *present* effect may follow, is, *ipso facto*, to convert a past act into a present one, or, to speak in the language of the grammarian, to convert an aorist into a perfect. To say *I did this that I may gain by it*, is to make, by the very effect of the expression, either *may* equivalent to *might*, or *did* equivalent to *have done*.

I did this that I might gain

I have done this that I may gain

§ 763. No conjunction can govern a case. A word that governs a case, be it ever so like a conjunction, is no conjunc-

tion, but a preposition. *Than* follows adjectives and adverbs of the comparative degree *This is sharper than that I see better to-day than yesterday.*

Than, in respect to its etymology, is neither more nor less than *then*. It is not difficult to see the connection in sense between such sentences, as *I like this better than I like that*, and *I like this—then (afterwards or next in order) like that*

Than is sometimes treated as a preposition when it governs a case

Thou art a gulf as much brighter than *her*,

As he is a poet sublimer than *me* —PRIOR

You are a much greater loser than *me* —SWIFT

It is better, however, to treat it as a conjunction, in which case the noun which follows it depends upon the verb of the antecedent clause. 1 *I like you better than he* = *I like you better than he likes you* 2 *I like you better than him* = *I like you better than I like him*

§ 764. *But*, in respect to its etymology, is *be-utan* = *be-out*. It is not difficult to see the connection in sense between such sentences as *all but one*, and *all without (or except) one*

But, then, is a Preposition and an Adverb, as well as a Conjunction. Prepositional construction — *They all ran away but me*, i e. *except me*. Conjunctional Construction. — *They all ran away but I*, i e. *but I did not run away*.

§ 765. *Conditional Conjunctions* govern the Subjunctive Mood.

The chief Conditional Conjunction is *if*. To say *if the sun shines the day will be clear* is inaccurate. The proper expression is, *if the sun shine*, &c.

Although the word *if* is the type and specimen of the conditional conjunction, there are several others so closely related to it in meaning as to agree with it in requiring a subjunctive mood to follow them.

1 *Except I be by Silvia in the night,*
There is no music in the nightingale.

2 Let us go and sacrifice to the Lord our God *lest he fall* upon us with pestilence

3 Let him not go *lest he die*

4 He shall not eat of the holy thing *unless he wash* his flesh with water

5 *Although* my house be not so with God

6 —revenge back on itself recoils

Let it I reckon not *so it light* well aimed

7 Seek out his wickedness *till thou find* none.

And so on with *before*, *ere*, *as long as*.

§ 766 On the other hand, *if* itself is not *always* conditional, conditional conjunctions being of two sorts.—

1 Those which express a condition as an actual fact, and one admitted as such by the speaker

2. Those which express a condition as a possible fact, and one which the speaker either does not admit, or admits only in a qualified manner.

Since *the children are so badly brought up*, &c.—This is an instance of the first construction. The speaker admits, as an actual fact, the *bad bringing-up of the children*.

If *the children be so badly brought-up*, &c. This is an instance of the second. The speaker admits as a possible (perhaps, as a probable) fact the *bad bringing-up of the children*; but he does not adopt it as an indubitable one.

Now, if every conjunction had a fixed invariable meaning, there would be no difficulty in determining whether a condition were absolute and beyond doubt, or possible and liable to doubt. But such is not the case.

Although may precede a proposition which is admitted as well as one which is doubted.

(a) *Although the children are*, &c.

(b) *Although the children be*, &c

If, too, may precede propositions wherein there is no doubt whatever implied. In other words, it may be used instead of *since*.

Hence we must look to the meaning of the sentence in general, rather than to the particular conjunction used.

It is a philological fact, that *if* may stand instead of *since*.

It is also a philological fact, that when it does so, it should be followed by the indicative mood.

As a point of practice, the following method of determining the amount of doubt expressed in a conditional proposition is useful.—Insert, immediately after the conjunction, one of the two following phrases—(1) *as is the case*; (2) *as may or may not be the case*. By ascertaining which of these two supplements expresses the meaning of the speaker, we ascertain the mood of the verb which follows

When the first formula is the one required, there is no element of doubt, and the verb should be in the indicative mood *If (as is the case) he is gone, I must follow him*.

When the second formula is the one required, there is an element of doubt, and the verb should be in the subjunctive

mood. *If (as may or may not be the case) he be gone, I must follow him.*

§ 767 Between the relative pronouns and conjunctions in general there is this point of connection,—both join propositions. Wherever there is a relative, there is a second proposition. So there is, for the most part, wherever there is a conjunction.

Between certain relative pronouns and those particular conjunctions that govern a subjunctive mood there is also a point of connection. Both suggest an element of uncertainty or indefinitude. Thus the relative pronouns do, through the logical elements common to them and to the interrogatives; these latter essentially suggesting the idea of doubt. Wherever the person, or thing, connected with an action, and expressed by a relative is indefinite, there is room for the use of a subjunctive mood. Thus—"he that troubled you shall bear his judgment, *whosoever* he be."

By considering the nature of such words as *when*, their origin as relatives on the one hand, and their conjunctional character on the other hand, we are prepared for finding a relative in words like *till, until, before, as long as, &c.* They can all be expanded into expressions like *until the time when, during the time when, &c.* Hence, in an expression like *seek out his wickedness till thou find (not findest) none*, the principle of the construction is nearly the same as in *he that troubled you, &c, or vice versâ.**

A Conjunction is a *Relative*, just as a Preposition is a *Transitive*, adverb.

CHAPTER XXVII.

THE RECIPROCAL CONSTRUCTION.

§ 768 IN all sentences containing the statement of a reciprocal or mutual action there are in reality two assertions, one that *A strikes (or loves) B*; and another that *B strikes (or loves) A*.

* Notwithstanding the extent to which a relative may take the appearance of a conjunction, there is always one unequivocal method of deciding its true nature. The relative is always a *part* of the second proposition. A conjunction is no *part* of either

Hence, if the expression exactly coincided with the fact signified, there would always be two full propositions. This, however, is not the habit of language. Hence arises a more compendious form of expression, giving origin to an ellipsis of a peculiar kind. Phrases like *Eteocles and Polynices killed each other* are elliptical, for *Eteocles and Polynices killed—each the other*. Here the second proposition expands and explains the first, whilst the first supplies the verb to the second. Each, however, is elliptic. The first is without the object, the second without the verb. That the verb must be in the plural number, that one of the nouns must be in the nominative case, and the other in the objective, is self-evident from the structure of the sentence.

§ 769. This is the syntax. As to the power of the words *each* and *one*, I am not prepared to say that in the common practice of the English language there is any distinction between them. A distinction, however, if it existed, would give precision to our language. Where *two* persons performed a reciprocal action, the expression might be, *one another*; as, *Eteocles and Polynices killed one another*. Where *more than two* persons were engaged on each side of a reciprocal action, the expression might be, *each other*, as, *the ten champions praised each other*. This amount of perspicuity is attained, by different processes, in the French, Spanish, and Scandinavian languages.

(1) French — *Ils* (i. e. A and B) *se battaient—l'un l'autre*
Ils (A B C) *se battaient—les uns les autres*.

(2) In Spanish, *uno otro* = *l'un l'autre*, and *unos otros* = *les uns les autres*.

(3) Danish — *Hinander* = the French *l'un l'autre*, whilst *hverandre* = *les uns les autres*.

PART VI.

PROSODY.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL VIEW OF METRE

§ 770 THE word *Prosody* is derived from a Greek word (*Prosodia*) signifying *accent*. It is used by Latin and English grammarians in a wider sense, and includes not only the doctrines of accent and quantity, but also the laws of metre and versification.

Take the sentence last written, count the syllables, and note those that are accented.

The notation will be as follows :—The word *Prosody* is derived from a Greek word signifying *accent*. It is used by Latin and English grammarians in a wider sense, and includes not only the doctrines of *accent* and *quantity*, but also the laws of *metre* and *versification*.—Here the accented syllables are the 2nd, 3rd, 8th, 11th, 12th, 13th, 16th, 20th, 22nd, 26th, 27th, &c.; that is, between two accented syllables there are sometimes three, sometimes two, and sometimes no unaccented syllables intervening. In other words, there is no regularity in the recurrence of the accent.

Proceed in the same way with the following stanzas, numbering each syllable, and observing upon which the accent occurs.

Then fare thee well, mine own dear love,
The world hath now for us
No greater grief, no pain above
The pain of parting thus —MOORE

Here the syllables accented are the 2nd, 4th, 6th, 8th, 10th

12th, 14th, 16th, 18th, 20th, 22nd, 24th, 26th, 28th ; that is, every other syllable. Again—

At the clóse of the dáy, when the hámlet is stíll,
And the mórtals the sweets of foigétfulness próve,
And when nóught but the torrent is heárd on the hull,
And there's nóught but the níghtingale's sòng in the gróve —BEATTIE

Here the syllables accented are the 3rd, 6th, 9th, 12th, 15th, 18th, 21st, 24th, 27th, 30th, 33rd, 36th, 39th, 42nd, 45th, 48th ; that is, every third syllable.

Now, the extract where there was no regularity in the recurrence of the accent was prose, and the extracts where the accent recurred at regular intervals formed metre. *Metre is a general term for the recurrence within certain intervals of syllables similarly affected*. The syllables that have just been numbered are similarly affected, being similarly accented.

So are the following —

Abbot —And why not live and áct with other men ?
Manfred —Because my náture wás averse from life,
And yet not cruel, fór I wóuld nót máke,
But find a désolátion —like the wínd,
The red-hot breath of the most lóne simoom,
Which dwélls but in the desert, ánd sweeps o'er
The báien sands which beáir no shrúbs to blást,
And révels o'er then wíld and árid wáves,
And seeketh nót so thát it is not sought,
But béing met is deádlý súch hath been
The páth of my éxistence —BYRON

§ 771. Accent is not the only quality of a syllable which, by its periodic return, can constitute metre, although it is the one upon which English metre depends. Indeed, it may be doubted whether *any* metre whatever exist in which it is not the fundamental element, however much the phraseology of grammarians may run to the contrary. The classical grammarians, however, determine the character of their metres not by accent, but by *quantity*. The evidence of the importance of accent even in the metres dependent upon quantity will be given in the sequel.

Again—there are certain metres wherein the syllables that occur at the proper periodic intervals either end or begin with the same *articulate sounds*.

In such cases we may say that the similarity of affection

between the periodic syllables consists in their *articulations*.
If so, our view of metre is as follows —

a. Metre is a general term for the recurrence within certain intervals of syllables similarly affected

b. Syllables may be similarly affected in respect to (1) their accents, (2) their quantities, (3) their articulations

1

Pālāi kŷnægčtoūntā kái metioūmēnōn
Πάλαι κύνηγχοῦντᾶ καὶ μετροῦμένον.

Here there is the recurrence of similar quantities

2

The wáy was lóng, the wínd was cöld

Here there is the recurrence of similar accents.

3

A.

The way was long, the wind was *cold*,
The minstrel was infirm and *old*

Here, besides the recurrence of similar accents, there is a recurrence of the same articulate sounds, viz of *o + ld*, these articulations being at the *end* of the word, or *final*.

In the following they are at the beginning, or *initial*—

B

In *Cannes cynne*
þone cwealm gewræc.

All metre goes by the name of poetry, although all poetry is not metrical. The Hebrew poetry is characterized by the recurrence of similar *ideas*.

CHAPTER II.

QUANTITY.

§ 772. THE metres wherein quantity plays its chief part are those of the Latin and Greek languages.

Specimen.

Phāsēlus illē quēm vīdētīs hōspītēs
Ait fūissē nāvīūm cēlēiūmūs

Nēq' ūllius nātāntis impetū t' abis
 Nēquissē prætēine, sive pālmulis
 Opus fōrēt volāre sive linteis.

As we read this according to our pronunciation, the accentuation of this passage is as follows.—

Phasclus ille quem vidētis hōspites
 A't fuisse nāvium celerrimus
 Neq' ūllus natāntis impetum t' abis
 Nequissē prætēine, sive pālmulis
 O'pus foret valare sive linteis

There is certainly accent as well as quantity here. As certainly do those accents recur with a certain amount of regularity, though not with the regularity of the quantities. Attention is directed to this

So it is to the following :—

Jām sātis tēris nivīs atque diræ
 Grāndinis misit pāter et iubēnte
 Dēxterā saciās jaculātus aīces
 Terrunt iūbēm

Here the quantities return with a very imperfect degree of regularity—the quantities considered singly. But what if, instead of considering them singly, we arrange them in groups; thus.—

˘ - | - - | ˘ ˘ | - ˘ | - ˘

or,

˘ ˘ | - - - | ˘ ˘ | - ˘ | -

or,

˘ ˘ | - - | - ˘ | - ˘ | - ˘

or any other way? In such a case the groups of quantities recur with absolute regularity.

The accents of the lines last quoted run thus :—

Jām sātis tēris nivīs atque diræ
 Grāndinis misit pāter et iubēnte
 Dēxtera sacias jaculātus aīces
 Terrunt iūbem.

Here the accents recur more regularly than the quantities taken by themselves, but less regularly than the quantities taken in groups.

The extent to which Accent plays a part in metres, which

are generally considered to be based on quantity, will be further noticed in the sequel.

At present it is only necessary to notice the two different ways in which quantities may be measured.

§ 773 There is a difference between the length of *vowels* and the length of *syllables*

The vowel in the syllable *see-* is long, and long it remains, whether it stand as it is, or be followed by a consonant, as in *seen*, or by a vowel, as in *see-ing*

The vowel in the word *sit* is short. Followed by a *second* consonant it still retains its shortness, *e g sits* Whatever the comparative length of the *syllables*, *see* and *seen*, *sit* and *sits*, may be, the length of their respective *vowels* is the same

Now, if we determine the character of the syllable by the character of the vowel, all syllables are short wherein there is a short vowel, and all are long wherein there is a long one. Measured by the quantity of the vowel the word *sits* is short, and the syllable *see-* in *seeing* is long

But it is well known that this view is not the view commonly taken of the syllables *see* (in *seeing*) and *sits*. It is well known, that, in the eyes of a classical scholar, the *see* (in *seeing*) is short, and that in the word *sits* the *i* is long. The classic differs from the Englishman thus,—*He measures his quantity not by the length of the vowel, but by the length of the syllable taken altogether* The perception of this distinction enables us to comprehend the following statements.

I That vowels long by nature may *appear* to become short by position, and *vice versâ*.

II. That, by a laxity of language, the *vowel* may be said to have changed its quantity, whilst it is the *syllable* alone that has been altered.

III That, if one person measures his quantities by the vowels, and another by the syllables, what is short to the one will be long to the other, and *vice versâ* The same is the case with nations.

IV. That one of the most essential differences between the English and the classical languages is, that the quantities (as far as they go) of the first are measured by the vowel, those of the latter by the syllable. To a Roman the word *monument* consists of two short syllables and one long one; to an Englishman it contains three short syllables.

CHAPTER III

ALLITERATIVE METRES

§ 774 THE following is an extract from a poem in the Swedish, written according to the alliterative system of the old Norse literature. It is foreign to the language as now spoken, but it is given because it is more truly alliterative than any older specimen. It is given as an extreme form, in order to serve as an illustration.

FRITHIOF'S SAGA

Canto XXI

1.

Sitter i högen
hogattad höfding,
slagsvård vid sidan,
skolden på arm.
Gångaren gode
gnaggar deimne,
skapar med gullhof
grundmurad graf

2

Nu ideo ike
Ring öfver Bifrost,
svigtar för bordan
bägga bion.
Upp springa Valhalls
hvalfdömar vida,
Asarnas hander
hanga i hans.

Without comparing the recurrence of the accent with the recurrence of the alliteration so closely as we have done in the previous chapter, we may remark that *all the alliterative syllables are also accentuate*,—this being another proof of the extent to which accent plays a part in metres generally considered to be based on alliteration

§ 775. The following are samples of the alliterative metre as it was actually written in (1) the Anglo-Saxon, (2) the Old Saxon, (3) the Old Norse, (4.) the Old High-German. The alliteration is more obscure here. It loses, however, much of this obscurity when we know,—

1. That the number of alliterative syllables within a certain space need not be more than *two*.

2. That all the vowels are considered, for the purposes of alliteration, as a single letter.

ANGLO-SAXON

OPENING OF BEOWULF.

Edited and translated by J M Kemble

Hwæt we Gar-Dena,
in gear-dagum,
beoð-cyniga,

þym ge-fuon—
hu ƿa ƿeþingas
ellen fremedon—

oft Scyld Scefing,
 sceapen(a) þeatum,
 monegū mægþum,
 meodo-setla of-teáh—
 egsode coil—
 syððan ærest wearð
 fea-scaft funden,
 he þæs frófe ge-bá(d).
 weox under wolcnum,
 weorð-myndum þah,
 oð þ̅ him æ'g-hwylc
 þára ymb-sittendia,
 ofer hion-áde,
 hýran scolde,
 gomlan gyldan—
 þ̅ wæs god cynning—

ðæm eafeia wæs
 æfer cenned,
 geong in geardum,
 þone góð sende
 folce to frófe,
 fryen-þearfe on-geat.
 þ̅ hie æi drigon,
 aldor-(lc)ase
 lange hwile,
 him þæs lif-fiea,
 wuldres wealdend,
 worold-áre for-geaf—
 Beo-wulf wæs þe biome,
 blæ'd wide spiang,
 Scyldes eafeia,
 Seede-landum in

§ 776.

(?) OLD SAXON, OR (?) FRANK.

FROM THE HILDEBRAND AND HATHUBRAND

In the Original

Ih gihota dat seggen,
 Dat sie uhelton ænon muotin,
 Hiltubriht endi Hadubriht,
 Unta heirun tuem
 Sunufatarungo (?)
 Iio saio (?) rihtun,
 Garutun sie no guthhamum,
 Gutun sie no suet ana,
 Hehdos uba ringa,
 Do sie to deio hiltu ritun
 Hiltubriht gmahalta,
 Heirbiantes sunu,
 Hei was heoro man,
 Feaahes fiotaro,
 Her fiagen gistuont (?)
 Fohem wortum wei sin "fatei wari,
 Fneo in folche,
 Eddo welches cnuosles du sis"
 "Ibu du mi aenan sages,
 "Ik mideo aie-wet,
 "Chund in chummruche,
 "Chud ist min al Imundeot"
 Hadubriht gmahalta
 Hiltubriantes sunu
 "Dat sagetun mi
 "Usere huta alte anti frote,
 "Dea eihuna warun,
 "Dat Hilbrant haetta min fater

In English

I heard that say,
 That they challenged in single combat,
 Hiltubriht and Hathubriht,
 Between the armies,
 (?)
 (?)
 They made ready their war-coats,
 They girt then swords on,
 Heroes over the ring,
 When they to the war rode
 Hiltubriht spoke,
 Heirbiant's son,
 He was the nobler man,
 Of age more wise,
 He
 With few words, who his "father was,
 In the folk of men,
 Of what kin thou beest"
 "If thou me only sayest,
 "I forbear contest
 "Child in kingdom,
 "Known is me all mankind"
 Hadubriht answered Hildebrand's
 son,
 "That said to me
 "Our people, old and wise,
 "Who of yore were
 "That Hilbiant hight my father

- " (Ih heittu Hadubiant)
 " Forn her ostar gihneit,
 " Floh hei Otachies nid
 " Hina miti Theotache
 " Enti smeio degano filu,
 " Hei fulach in lante
 " Luttila sitten
 " Prut in buie,
 " Bain unwahsan,
 " Aibeolosa heiaet,
 " Ostar hina det,
 " Sid dehiche darba gstuontum (?)
 " Fateries mnes,
 " Dat was so friuntlaos man,
 " Hei was Otachre ummettun,
 " Degano dechisto,
 " Unti Deotache
 " Darba gstontum,
 " Her was eo folches at ente,
 " Imo was eo feheta ti leop
 " Chud was her chonmem mannuma,
 " Ni wannu ih, in lib habbe '
 " Wittu Irmin-Got," quad Hiltbraht,
 " Obana ab havane,
 " Dat du neo danahalt mit sus
 " Sippan man dinc in giletos! "
 Want her do ar aime
 Wuntane bouga,
 Cheswungu gitan,
 So mo seder Chunung gap
 Huneo Druhtin,
 " Dat ih du it un bi huldi gabu! "
 Hadubraht gimalta,
 Hiltbiantes sunu.
 " Mit geru scal man,
 " Geba mfahan,
 " Oit wida orte,
 " Du bist dir, alter Hun, ummet,
 " Spaher, spenis mi
 " Mit dinem wortema,
 " Wilihuh di nu
 " Speru werpan,
 " Pist al so galtet man,
 " So du ewm inwit fortos,
 " Dat sagetun mi
 " Sacoldante
 " Westar ubar Wentilsaeo,
 " Dat man wic furnam
 " Tot ist Hiltbraht
 " (I hight Hadubiant)
 " Fore, hence eastward departed,
 " Fled Odoacer's spite
 " Him mit Theodoric,
 " And of his thanes many
 " He left in land,
 " Little to sit,
 " Bride in bower,
 " Bain unwaxen,
 " Hendomless heir,
 " Eastward him
 " (?)
 " Of my kinsman,
 " That was so friendless a man
 " He was to Odoacer unequal,
 " Of thanes worthiest
 " As long as to Theodoric,
 " (?)
 " He was even of the people at the end
 (top),
 " Him was the fight to clear,
 " Known was he to keen men,
 " I ween not whether he live.
 " Wot thou Irmin-gott," quoth Hildi-
 brand
 " Over in heaven,
 " That thou . . .
 Wound he then of aim
 The wounden bow,
 (°)
 Which to him since the King gave,
 The Lord of the Huns
 " That I to thee in favour give
 Hadubiaht answered Hildebrand's
 son
 " With arms shall man
 " Gifts receive
 " Point to point against . . .
 " Thou best, old Hun unequal
 " thou prickest me
 " With thy words,
 " now
 " With spear cast,
 " Beest so aged a man
 " That said to me,
 " . . .
 " Westwards over the Vandal Sea,
 " That man was took
 " Dead is Hiltbraht,

"Heribrantes sumo"
 Hildibriant gmahalta
 Heribrantes sumo
 "Wela gsihu ih,
 "In dnem hmustum,
 "Dat du habes keine herion goten,
 "Dat du noh bi desemo riche"
 "Recgheo nu wunt"
 "Welaga, nu waltant Got,"
 Quad Hiltibriant,
 "We wunt skihit"
 "Ih wallota sumaro enti wintio
 "Sehstick ulante
 "Dai man mih eo sceanta
 "In folc scestanterio
 "So man mir at buoc emgeru
 "Banun ni gfasta,
 "Nu scal mih suasat chind
 "Sueitu hauwan,
 "Bieton mit sinu bilhu,
 "Eddo ih imo ti banun weidan
 "Doh maht du nu aodicho,
 "Ibu du din ellent aoc,
 "In sus hereno man
 "Hrustu gu wunnan,
 "Rauha bi hrabanen
 "Ibu du dar emc iecht habes
 "Dei si doh nu agosto"
 Quad Hildibriant, "ostalruto,
 "Der di nu wiges warne,
 "Nu diu es so wel lustit
 "Gudea gimeirum
 "Niused emotti
 "Wei dai sih hiutu deio piel-zilo
 "Hrumen muotti,
 "Eido descio biunnono
 "Bederu waltan"
 Do laettun se acnist
 Asclum scintan
 Scarpes seum,
 Dat in dem saltum stout,
 Do stoptun tosamene,
 Starnbort chludun,
 Hewun harmiloco
 Hunte scilt
 Untu im no lintun
 Luttulo wuntun

"Herbriant's son"
 Hildebriant answered
 Herbriant's son
 "Well see I,
 "In thy harness,
 "That thou no good master hast,
 "That thou still by this kingdom
 "Hero art not"
 "Well away now great God,"
 Quoth Hiltibriant,
 "We will decide"
 "I wandered summer and winter
 "Sixty out of the land
 "There they me .
 "In the folk
 "So they me at any bug
 "not fastened
 "Now me child
 "With sword hew
 "with his bill
 "O! I to him be the bane
 "Still mayest thou easily
 "If to thee thy strength
 "noble man
 "With arms win,
 "Prey to ravens,
 "If thou there any right hast"

Quoth Hildibriant .
 "Now it so well pleases thee
 "Who is to-day

Then let they first
 With axes
 With sharp showers,
 That on the shields sounded,
 They dashed together
 sounded
 They hewed harmfully
 The white shields,
 And to them then hindens
 Little were

§ 777.

*The Weissenbrun Hymn **

Dæt chifegun ih mit fiahun
 Firwizzo meista,
 Dæt eia ni was,
 Noh uihemil
 Noh paum, noh pereg
 ni was,
 Ni [sterio] noh hemig,
 Noh sunna ni secin,
 Noh mano ni luhita,
 Noh dei mareo seo,
 Do dai ni wiht ni was,
 Enteo ni wenteo,
 Enti do was der emo,
 Almahico Cot,
 Manno miltisto,
 Enti [dar waiun aui] manahe mit
 man,
 Coothlilha geista
 [Eati] Cot heilac,
 Cot Almahico, du humil,
 Ente eida cluwoiahtos,
 Enti du mannun,
 So manac coot foiscipi,
 Forgp mei in dino ganada
 Rehta galaupa,
 Enti cotan willeon,
 Wistom enti spaluda,
 [Enti] ciaft tuflun za widaistantanne
 Ente aic za piwisanne,
 Enti dman willeon
 Za cluwunchanpe

*The same in Anglo-Saxon **

Dæt gefiagn ic mid fiahun,
 Forwisa mostum
 Dæt eia ne wæs
 Nan upheofon,
 Nan beann, nan beorg,
 ne wæs,
 Ne steorra noenege,
 Nan sunna ne sean,
 Nan mona ne leolitode,
 Ne se mareo seo
 Ðonne þæi no whiit ne wæs
 Ende ne wende
 And ðonne wæs se ana
 Ælmihtig God
 Mannan mildoste,
 And [ðæi wæron eac] mange mid
 him
 Goteundige gastas
 [Eala] God halig,
 God Almihtiga, ðu heofon,
 And eorþan gewirotet,
 And ðu mannun
 Swa mange gode foiscipest,
 Forgif me in ðinne gemiltung
 Rehte geleafan
 And gode willan,
 Wisdom and spede,
 Deofol-craft to wiðeandanne,
 And aig to wiðerianne,
 And ðine willan
 To ge-wyrcianne

§ 778.

OLD NORSE

FROM THE EDDA

Voluspá, stanzas 1—6

1

Hljóðs brð ek allar
 helgar landu
 meiri ok minni,
 mögu Heimdallar
 vildu at ek Valfoðis
 vel fiantelja,
 fornsjöll fna,
 þau ei ek fíemst um man

2

Ek man jotna
 ar um borna,
 þa ei forðum
 mik fœdda hofðu,
 nín man ek henna,
 níu iwiðjur,
 mjotvið mæran
 fyr mold neðan

* Both the original and the A S translation are from Conybeare's *Illustrations of Anglo-Saxon Poetry*

3
A'tr var alda
þar ei Y'mir byggði,
vara sandr ne sæi
ne svalar unnir,
jörð fannsk æva
ne upphiminn,
gap var ginnunga,
en gras hveigi

4
A'ðr Burs synn
hjóðum um ypðu,
þen ei mægað
moran skópu
sól skem sunnan
a salar steina,
þa var grund gróin
grœnum lauka

5
Sól varp sunnan,
smá mana,

Leudi inni hœgni
um lumanjólýr,
sól þat ne vissi
hvai hon salí atti,
man þat ne vissi
hvat hann megins atti,
stjórn þat ne vissu
hvai þær staði áttu

6
Þá gengu i egum öll
a iokstóla,
ginnheilög goð,
ok um þat gættusk
nótt ok mæjum
nofn um gáfu,
moign hetu
ok mæjan dag,
undoin ok aptan,
ann at telja

§ 779

OLD HIGH-GERMAN.

FROM A POEM NAMED MUSPILLI

Daz hōit ih rahhon
Dia werolt-ichtwison,
Daz seuh dei Antichristo
Mit Ehase pāgan
Dei waich ist kiwāfant,
Dennewndit untar in wik ahapan,
Khensun sind so kreftic,
Dni kosa ist so muhlul
Ehas stiitit
Pi den ewigon lip.
Wih den rehtkernon
Daz iihlu kistaikan,
Pidu scal imo halkan
Dei humles kiwaltit
Dei Antiersto stēt
Pi dem Altfiante
Stet pi demo Satanase.
Der man farsenkan scal,
Pidu scal er in dei wiesteti
Wunt pivallan,

Enti in demo sinde
Sigalos werden.
Doh wānit des rila gotmanno,
Daz Elhas in demo wige arwartit
(weidit)
Sār so daz Elhases pluot
In erda kitrunfit,
So imprunant die peiga,
Poum in kistentit
Eme in eidu,
Aha astiuknēt,
Muoi vairsulhet sih,
Sulhzot lougu der huml
Māno vallit,
Pimnit mittlagat,
Sten ni kistentit emik in eidu
Veit denne stuatago in lant,
Veit mit dm viuru
Viuhō wisōn,
Dar in mai denne māk andremo

The system of alliteration has hitherto been explained in the most general way possible; all that has been attempted

being the exhibition of the principle upon which such extracts as the preceding can be understood to be metrical; and that this their metrical character is by no means transparently clear, may be collected from the fact that many of the old alliterational compositions were treated by the earlier scholars as prose

As a general rule all early German poetry is alliterative though it by no means follows that the alliteration was equally general in all the German forms of speech

§ 780. Alliteration preceded rhyme Rhyme followed alliteration. Hence, whenever we have no specimens of a given form of speech anterior to the evolution of rhyme, we have no alliterational compositions This is the case with the Friesian, the Batavian, and the Platt-Deutsch dialects. Indeed, for the High-German the poem of *Muspilli* is a solitary, or nearly solitary, instance. The two languages wherein there is the most of it are the English during the Anglo-Saxon and early English periods, and the Norse In the latter we not only get numerous specimens, but we also get the rules of its Prosody. These are, perhaps, more artificial than actual practice requires They are also more stringent and elaborate than those of Anglo-Saxon and High-German

Thus, the alliterative syllables take names, one being the *head-stave* and the other two the *by-staves*

The *head-stave* has its place at the beginning of the second line, or (if we throw the two into one) immediately after a break, *cæsura*, pause, or *quasi-division*

The *by-staves* belong to the first line out of two, or to the first member of a single one This is a rule that gives stringency to the system. Others give licence. Thus,—

An unaccented syllable at the beginning of the second line (or member) counts as nothing.

Again, the vowels which collectively are dealt with as a single letter not only *may* but *must* be different. This goes far to enable anything and everything to be metre—inasmuch as all that is wanted to constitute either one long or two short lines is the occurrence of three words beginning with a vowel, and accented on their initial syllable. The following is from Thorlakson's Translation of *Paradise Lost*.—

“Of Man's first disobedience, and the fruit
Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste
Brought death into the world, and all our woe.

With loss of Eden, till one greater Man
 Restore us, and regain the blissful seat,
 Sing, heavenly Muse, that on the secret top
 Of Oreb, or of Sinai, didst inspire
 That shepherd, who first taught the chosen seed,
 In the beginning how the Heaven and Earth
 Rose out of Chaos or if Sion hill
 Delight thee more, and Siloa's brook that flow'd
 Fast by the oracle of God "

" Um fyrist manns
 felda hlýðni
 ok átlýsting
 af epli forboðnu,
 hvaðan óvægr
 upp kom dauði,
 Edens missni,
 ok allt bol mauna ,

" Þartil annað eunn,
 æðni maði,
 aptr fæi
 oss viðeista.
 ok afiekar nýan
 oss til hauda
 fullsælustað
 fogum signi,

" Sýng þu, Menta-
 móðni himneska '
 þú sem Hóiebs fyri
 á huldum toppi,
 eða Sinaí,
 sauðaveiði
 minnblest flæðanda
 útvalit sæði,
 hve alheimr skópst
 af alls samblandi ,

· Eða lýsti þik
 langtum heldi
 at Zíous lað
 ok Sílóa blumni,
 sem framsteymdu
 hja Flett guðhugi "

The full details of the Norse alliterative system may be found in Rask's treatise on the Icelandic Prosody.

CHAPTER IV

RHYME AND ASSONANCE

§ 781. In an *Alliteration* the likeness between the articulate sounds which constitute it occurs at the *beginning* of words In *rhyme* it occurs at the end

Observe in each of the following couplets the last syllable of each line They are said to *rhyme* to each other.

O'er the glad waters of the dark blue *sea*,
 Our thoughts as boundless, and our souls as *free*
 Far as the breeze can bear the billow's *foam*,
 Survey our empire and behold our *home*
 These are our realms, no limits to our *sway*—
 Our flag the sceptre all who meet *obey*.

The next extract is a stanza of Gray's *Elegy*, where, instead of following one another in succession, the rhyming lines come alternately.

Full many a gem of purest ray serene
The dark, unfathom'd depths of ocean bear,
Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
And waste its sweetness on the desert air — GRAY

In other stanzas the rhyming lines are sometimes continuous, and sometimes separated from each other by an interval

And yet how lovely in thine age of *noe*,
Land of lost gods and godlike men, art *thou* !
Thy vales of evergreen, thy hills of *snow*,
Proclaim thee Nature's varied favourite *now*
Thy fanes, thy temples to thy surface *bow*,
Commingling slowly with heroic *earth*,
Broke by the share of every rustic *plough*
So perish monuments of mortal *birth*,
So perish all in turn save well-recorded *worth* — BYRON

It is not difficult to see, in a general way, in what rhyme consists. The syllables *see* and *free*, *foun*, *home*, &c., are syllables of similar sound ; and lines that end in syllables of similar sound are lines that rhyme

By substituting in a line or stanza, instead of the final syllable, some word different in sound, although similarly accented and equally capable of making sense, we may arrive at a general view of the nature and influence of rhyme as an ornament of metre. In the following stanza we may spoil the effect by substituting the word *glen* for *vale*, and *light* for *ray*.

Turn, gentle hermit of the *vale*,
And guide thy lonely *way*
To where yon taper cheers the *dale*
With hospitable *ray* — GOLDSMITH

With this contrast—

Turn, gentle hermit of the *glen*,
And guide thy lonely *way*
To where yon taper cheers the *dale*
With hospitable *light*

§ 782 Syllables may be similar in their sound, and yet fail in furnishing full, true, and perfect rhymes. In each of the forthcoming couplets there is evidently a similarity of sound, and there is equally evidently an imperfection in the rhyme

1

The soft-flowing outline that steals from the eye,
Who threw o'er the surface,—did you or did I?

WHITEHEAD

2

'Tis with our judgments as our watches, none
Go just alike, yet each believes his own.—POPE

3

Soft o'er the shrouds aerial whispers breathe,
That seem'd but zephyrs to the tiara beneath.—POPE

The first of these three pairs of verses was altered into—

The soft-flowing outline that steals from the view,
Who threw o'er the surface,—did I or did you?

and that solely on account of the imperfectness of the original endings, *eye* and *I*.

These are samples of what passes for a rhyme without being one

Neither are the syllables *high* and *-ly*, in the following, rhymes.

The witch she held the hair in her hand,
The red flame blazed high,
And round about the cauldron stout,
They danced right merrily —KIRKE WHITE

§ 783. *Varieties of imperfect Rhymes.*—None and own are better rhymes than none and man, because there are degrees in the amount to which vowels differ from one another, and the sounds of the o in none and the o in own are more alike than the sounds of the o in none and the a in man. In like manner breathe and teeth are nearer to rhymes than breathe and teaze; and breathe and teaze are more alike in sound than breathe and teal. All this is because the sound of the th in teeth is more allied to that of the th in breathe than that of the z in teaze, and to the z in teaze more than to the l in teal. This shows that in imperfect rhymes there are degrees, and that some approach the nature of true ones more than others

Hugh and, *hair* and *air*, are imperfect rhymes.

Whose generous children narrow'd not their hearts
With commerce, giv'n alone to aims and arts —BYRON.

Words where the letters coincide, but the sounds differ, are only rhymes to the eye. *Breathe* and *beneath* are in this predicament, so also are *cease* and *ease* (*ease*)

In the fat age of pleasure, wealth, and ease,
Sprang the rank weed, and thrived with large increase.

POPE

If the sounds coincide, the difference of the letters is unimportant.

Bold in the practice of mistaken rules,
Prescribe, apply, and call them masters fools
They talk of principles, but notions prize,
And all to one loved folly sacrifice

§ 784. *Analysis of a rhyming syllable*.—Let the syllable *told* be taken to pieces. For metrical purposes it consists of three parts or elements: 1, the vowel (*o*); 2, the part preceding the vowel (*t*), 3, the part following the vowel (*ld*). The same may be done with the word *bold*. The two words can now be compared with each other. The comparison shows that the vowel is in each the same (*o*), that the part following the vowel (*ld*) is the same, and, finally, that the part preceding the vowel is *different* (*t* and *b*). This difference between the part preceding the vowel is essential.

Told, compared with itself (*told*), is no rhyme, but an *homœoteleuton* (ὁμοῖος, *homœios* = *like*, and τελευτή, *teleutē* = *end*) or *like ending*. It differs from a rhyme in having the parts preceding the vowel alike. Absolute identity of termination is not recognized in English poetry, except so far as it is mistaken for rhyme.

The soft-flowing outline that steals from the eye,
Who threw o'er the surface? did you or did I?—WHITEHEAD

Here the difference in spelling simulates a difference in sound, and a *homœoteleuton* takes the appearance of a rhyme.

Bold and *note*.—As compared with each other, these words have two of the elements of a rhyme: viz. the identity of the vowel, and the difference of the parts preceding it. They want, however, the third essential, or the identity of the parts following; *ld* being different from *t*. The coincidence, however, as far as it goes, constitutes a point in metre, as will soon be seen.

Bold and *mild*.—Here also are two of the elements of a rhyme, viz. the identity of the parts following the vowel (*ld*), and the difference of the parts preceding (*b* and *m*). The identity of the vowel (*o* being different from *i*) is, however, wanting.

Rhymes may consist of a single syllable, as *told*, *bold*; of two syllables, as *water*, *daughter*; of three, as *cheerily*, *wearily*. Now, the rhyme begins where the dissimilarity of parts immediately before the main vowel begins. Then follows the vowel; and, lastly, the parts after the vowel. All the parts after the vowel must be absolutely identical. Mere similarity is insufficient.

Then come ere a *minute's* gone,
For the long summer day
Puts its wings, swift as *lunets'* on,
For flying away—CLARE

In the lines just quoted there is no rhyme, but an assonance. The identity of the parts after the main syllable is destroyed by the single sound of the *g* in *gone*.

A rhyme, to be perfect, must fall on syllables equally accented. To make *sky* and the last syllable of *merrily* serve as rhymes, is to couple an accented syllable with an unaccented one.

A rhyme, to be perfect, must fall upon syllables absolutely accented.—To make the last syllables of words like *flighty* and *merrily* serve as rhymes, is to couple together two unaccented syllables.

A rhyme consists in the combination of like and unlike sounds.—Words like *I* and *eye* (*homœoteleuta*), *ease* and *cease* (vowel assonances), *love* and *grove* (consonantal assonances), are printers' rhymes, or mere combinations of like and unlike letters.

A rhyme, moreover, consists in the combination of like and unlike *articulate* sounds—*Hit* and *it* are not rhymes, but identical endings; the *h* being no articulation. To my ear, at least, the pair of words, *hit* and *it*, comes under a different class from the pair *hit* (or *it*) and *pit*. Hence—

A full and perfect rhyme (the term being stringently defined) consists in the recurrence of one or more final syllables equally and absolutely accented, wherein the vowels and the parts following the vowel shall be identical, whilst the parts preceding the vowel shall be articulately different.

To this definition, words like *old* and *bold* form no exception. At the first view it may be objected that in words like *old* there is no part preceding the vowel. Compared, however, with *bold*, the negation of that part constitutes a difference. The same applies to words like *go* and *lo*, where the negation of a part following the vowel is a point of identity. Furthermore, I may

observe, that the word *part* is used in the singular number. The assertion is not that every individual sound preceding the vowel must be different, but that the aggregate of them must be so. Hence, *pray* and *bray* (where the *r* is common to both forms) form as true a rhyme as *bray* and *play*, where all the sounds preceding *a* differ.

§ 785. *Single Rhymes*, &c.—An accented syllable standing by itself, and coming under the conditions given above, constitutes a single rhyme

'T is hard to say if greater want of *skill*
Appear in writing or in judging *ill* ,
But, of the two, less dangerous is the *offence*
To tye the patience than mislead the *sense*
Some few in that, but thousands err in *this* ,
Ten censure wrong, for one that writes *amiss* —POPE

Double Rhymes—An accented syllable followed by an unaccented one, and coming under the conditions given above, constitutes a double rhyme.

The meeting points the sacred han *dissever*
From her fan head for ever and for *ever* —POPE

Prove and explain a thing till all men *doubt it* ,
And write about it, Goddess, and *about it* —POPE

Treble Rhymes.—An accented syllable followed by two unaccented ones, and coming under the conditions given above, constitutes a treble rhyme.

Beware that its fatal *ascendancy*
Do not tempt thee to mope and *repine* ,
With a humble and hopeful *dependency*
Still await the good pleasure *divine*

Success in a higher *beatitude*
Is the end of what's under the *pole*
A philosopher takes it with *gratitude* ,
And believes it the best in the *whole* —BYRON

§ 786 *Constant and inconstant parts of a rhyme* Of the three parts, or elements, of a rhyme, the vowel and the part which follows the vowel are *constant*, i. e. they cannot be changed without changing or destroying the rhyme. In *told* and *bold*, *plunder* and *blunder*, both the *o* or *u* on one side, and the *-ld* or *-nder* on the other, are immutable

Of the three parts, or elements, of a rhyme the part which precedes the vowel is *inconstant*, i. e. it must be changed in

order to effect the rhyme. Thus, *old* and *old*, *told* and *told*, *bold* and *bold*, do *not* rhyme with each other; although *old*, *bold*, *told*, *scold*, &c, do. Hence—

Rule 1 In two or more syllables that rhyme with each other, neither the vowel nor the sounds which *follow* it can be *different*.

Rule 2 In two or more syllables that rhyme with each other, the sounds which *precede* the vowel cannot be *alike*.

Now the number of sounds which can precede a vowel is limited, it is that of the consonants and consonantal combinations, of which a list can be made *a priori*

<i>p</i>	<i>p^l</i>	<i>p^r</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>b^l</i>	<i>b^r</i>
<i>f</i>	<i>f^l</i>	<i>f^r</i>	<i>v</i>	<i>v^l</i>	<i>v^r</i>
<i>t</i>	<i>t^l</i>	<i>t^r</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>d^l</i>	<i>d^r</i>
<i>th</i>	<i>th^l</i>	<i>th^r</i>	<i>dh</i>	<i>dh^l</i>	<i>dh^r</i>
<i>h</i>	<i>h^l</i>	<i>h^r</i>	<i>g</i>	<i>g^l</i>	<i>g^r</i>
<i>s</i>	<i>s^p</i>	<i>s^f</i>	<i>st</i>	<i>sth</i>	<i>st^r</i>

and so on, the combinations of *s* being the most complex

This gives us the following method (or receipt) for the discovery of rhymes:—

1 Divide the word to which a rhyme is required, into its *constant* and *inconstant* elements

2 Make up the inconstant element by the different consonants and consonantal combinations until they are exhausted

3. In the lists of words so formed, mark off those which have an existence in the language. These will all rhyme with each other; and if the list of combinations be exhaustive, there are no other words which will do so.

Example—From the word *told*, separate the *o* and *-ld*, which are constant

Instead of the inconstant element *t*, write successively *p*, *p^l*, *p^r*, *b*, *b^l*, *b^r*, &c so that you have the following list —*t-old*, *p-old*, *p^l-old*, *p^r-old*, *b-old*, *b^l-old*, *b^r-old*, &c.

Of these, words like *plold*, *blold*, *brold*, that have no existence in the language, are only possible, not actual, rhymes.

All words have the same number of possible, but not the same number of actual rhymes. Thus, *silver* is a word amenable to the same process as *told*—*pilver*, *p^lilver*, *p^rilver*, *bilver*, &c, yet *silver* is a word without a corresponding rhyme. This is because the combinations which answer to it do not constitute words, or combinations of words in the English language.

§ 787. *Assonances*—Approximate rhymes, wherein the vowels only, or the consonants only, or vowels and consonants, coincide, are called *assonances*.

The following is assonant—Irish, however, rather than English:—

O the groves of Blarney
They are so charming,
All by the purling of soft silent brooks,
With banks of 10ses
That spontaneously grow there
All standing in order by the sweet rock close

In the Spanish and Scandinavian literature assonant metres are important, numerous, and prominent.

CHAPTER V.

METRICAL NOTATION AND SCANSION.

§ 788. TAKE a line For every accented syllable invent a symbol. Thus—

Let + denote the accent, — the absence of it. Or—

Let ' denote the accent, " the absence of it. Or—

Let α and x do the same respectively.

These last symbols are the most convenient. Hence—

What we write in full, thus—

The wáy was lóng, the wínd was cöld,

we may express symbolically, thus—

$x \alpha x \alpha x \alpha x \alpha$,

Or dividing the syllables into groups,

$x \alpha, x \alpha, x \alpha, x \alpha.$

A group of syllables thus taken together is called a *Measure*; the symbolical expression of the same being called *Metrical Notation*.

Measure is a term which applies to syllables only, when they are thrown into groups according to their *accent*.

When thrown into groups according to their *quantities*, the groups thus constituted are called *feet*.

For the groups formed by the combination of alliterative

and non-alliterative syllables, *stave* is a convenient name. Hence—

The Classical Metres consist of *feet*, the English (and others) of *measures*, the Old Norse, &c, of *staves*.

I should add, however, that this nomenclature is a suggestion, rather than a generally acknowledged fact. Neither is it unexceptionable. In a *stave* or a *foot* the syllables are as truly *measured* as in a *measure*, in the limited sense of the term. Hence it is far from impossible that the word, like so many others, may have to bear two meanings, one general and one special. In this case a *measure* is the name of a group of syllables similarly affected, whether by quantity or by accent. If by the former, the result is a *foot*; if by the latter, the result is a *measure*, in the limited sense of the term.

Whatever may be the result of this suggestion, it is highly important to keep the metres based upon quantity different from the metres based upon accent. Hence, if we call (as we do call) measures based upon quantity by the name of *feet*, we must ever remember that we have no *feet* in the English metres; since in English we determine our measures by *accent* only.

The classical grammarians express their feet by symbols; — denoting length, \cup shortness. Forms like $\cup - - \cup$, $- \cup \cup$, $- -$, $\cup \cup \cup$, &c. are the symbolical representations of the classical feet.

The classical grammarians have *names* for their feet; *e. g.* *iambic* is the name of $\cup -$, *trochee* of $- \cup$, *dactyle* of $- \cup \cup$, *amphibrachys* of $\cup - \cup$, *anapaest* of $\cup - -$, &c.

§ 789 The English grammarians have, hitherto, had no symbols for their measures: since those that have been submitted to the reader are only suggested or proposed.

Neither have the English grammarians names for their measures. Sometimes, they borrow the classical terms *iambic*, *trochee*, &c

As *symbols* I have suggested *a* and *x*

As *names* for the English measures I have nothing to offer except the remark that the classical names are never used with impunity. Their adoption invariably engenders confusion. It is very true that, *mutatis mutandis* (*i. e.* accent being substituted for quantity), words like *týrant* and *presúme* are trochees and iambs; but it is also true that, with the common nomenclature, the full extent of the change is rarely appreciated.

Symbolically expressed, the following forms denote the following measures.—

1 $a x$ = *tyrant*

2 $x a$ = *presume*

3 $a x x$ = *merrily*

4 $x a x$ = *disable*

5 $x x a$ = *cavalier*

I have stated that as *names* of the English metres I have nothing to offer. I have only said what they should *not* be called. They should not be called *feet*, and they should not bear the names borne by *feet*, *e. g.* the names *trochee, iambic, &c.*

§ 790. Notwithstanding, however, the want of appropriate denominations for the English measures, the practical inconvenience that arises from their absence is inconsiderable, inasmuch as the number of our primary combinations is limited, and their order natural. Thus—

Measures consisting of a single syllable, and measures consisting of four syllables, are of such extreme rarity that the only practical combinations are the *dissyllabic* and the *trissyllabic*—(1) $a x$ and $x a$, (2) $a x x$, $x a x$, and $x x a$.

Of these let the shorter take precedence; so that $a x$ and $x a$ form the former of two divisions.

Within each of these divisions, let those combinations come first whose accent shows itself the soonest—thus let $a x$ precede $x a$, and $a x x$ precede $x a x$

The result is—

A. Dissyllabic Measures	1	$a x$	— <i>tyrant</i>
	2	$x a$	— <i>presume</i>
B. Trissyllabic Measures	3	$a x x$	— <i>merrily</i>
	4	$x a x$	— <i>disable</i> .
	5	$x x a$	— <i>cavalier</i>

As this order is natural, it may be adopted as permanent also; in which case our measures are the *first, second, third, fourth, and fifth*

On these measures the following general assertions may be made, *viz.*—

That the dissyllabic measures are, in English, commoner than the trissyllabic

That, of the dissyllabic measures, the second is commoner than the first.

§ 791. *Scansion*—Grouped together according to certain

rules, measures constitute lines or verses, and grouped together according to certain rules, lines constitute couplets, triplets, stanzas, &c.

The absence or the presence of rhyme constitutes blank verse or rhyming verse, as the case may be.

The succession, or periodic return, of rhymes constitutes stanzas, or continuous metre, as the case may be.

The quantity of rhymes in succession constitutes couplets, or triplets

The investigation of the measures of a line, verse, &c., is called *Scansion*.

In taking the length of a line, we may measure by either the *accents* or the *syllables*, so that with four measures of the formulas *a x* or *x a*, we may take our choice between saying that the verse has *four accents*, or saying that it has *eight syllables*

For all scientific purposes we count by *accents* rather than syllables—in other words, the accent determines the measure, and the measure the verse. At the same time we have, in common language, such terms as *octosyllabic*, applied to lines like—

The wáy was lóng, the wínd was cöld

§ 792. Accent is essential to English metre. Rhyme, on the other hand, is only an ornament. Of all the ornaments of English versification it is undoubtedly the most important. Still it is not essential. Metres where there is no rhyme are called Blank Metres

Of man's first disobedience and the fruit
Of that forbidden tree, whose mortal taste
Brought death into the world and all our woe
With loss of Eden, till one greater Man
Restore us, and regain the blissful seat.
Sing, Heavenly Muse!—MILTON

The quality of mercy is not strained
It droppeth as the gentle dew from heaven
Upon the place beneath, it is twice bless'd,
It blesseth him that gives and him that takes,
'Tis mightiest of the mighty, it becomes
The throned monarch better than his crown
His sceptre shows the force of temporal power,
The attribute of awe and majesty,
Wherein doth sit the dread and fear of kings.
But mercy is above this sceptred sway.

It is enthroned in the hearts of kings
 It is an attribute to God himself,
 And earthly power doth then show likest God's,
 When mercy seasons justice — SHAKESPEARE

§ 793. *The last measure in a line or verse is indifferent as to its length* — By referring to the notice of single rhymes, we shall find that the number of syllables is just double the number of accents; *i. e.* to each accented there is one unaccented syllable, and no more. Hence, with five accents, there are to each line ten syllables. This, however, is not the case where the rhymes are double. Here, with five accents, there are to each line eleven syllables. Now it is in the last measure that this supernumerary unaccented syllable appears; and it is a general rule, that, in the last measure of any verse, supernumerary unaccented syllables can be admitted without destroying the original character of the measure. Hence it is, that, up to a certain point, we may say that the length of the concluding measure of a line or verse is a matter of indifference.

In the lines

The meeting points the sacred hair disséver
 From her fan head, for ever and for ever.

x a appears to be converted into *x a x*. A different view, however, is the more correct one. *Disséver*, and *for éver*, are rather *x a* with a syllable over. This extra syllable may be expressed by the sign *plus* (+), so that the words in point may be expressed by *x a +*, rather than by *x a x*.

It is very clear that measures whereof the last syllable is accented (that is, measures like *x a*, *presúme*, or *x a a*, *cavalier*) can only vary from their original character on the side of excess; that is, they can only be altered by the addition of fresh syllables. To subtract a syllable from such feet is impossible, since it is only the last syllable that is capable of being subtracted. If that last syllable, however, be the accented syllable of the measure, the whole measure is annihilated. Nothing remains but the unaccented syllable preceding; and this, as no measure can subsist without an accent, must be counted as a supernumerary part of the preceding measure.

With the measures *a x*, *a x x*, *x a x*, the case is different. Here there is room for a syllable or syllables to be subtracted.

Queen and huntless chaste and fair,
 Now the sun is laid to sleep,
 Seated in thy silver chair,
 State in wonted splendour keep
 Hesperus invokes thy light.
 Goddess, exquisitely bright — BEN JONSON

In all these lines the last measure is deficient in a syllable, yet the deficiency is allowable, because each measure is the last one of the line. The formula for expressing *fair*, *sleep*, *chair*, &c., is not *a*, but rather *a x* followed by the *minus* sign (—), or *a x —*

A little consideration will show, that, amongst the English measures, *x a* and *x x a* naturally form single, *a x* and *x a x* double, and *a x x* treble rhymes.

Let a line consist of five measures, each measure being *x a*. This we may express thus.

x a x a x a x a x a

The presence of a supernumerary syllable may be denoted by the sign +

x a x a x a r a x a +.

On the other hand, the sign — indicates the absence of a syllable so that the line

Queen and huntless, chaste and fair,

runs

a x a x a x a x —

These forms may be rendered more compendious by the introduction of the arithmetical sign \times signifying multiplication, by means of which we may write, instead of

a x a x a x a x —,

the shorter form

a x \times 4 —.

§ 794.

SPECIMENS

1 (*a x*)

Lines wherein the accent falls on the first, third, and fifth syllables, &c, *i. e* upon every second syllable, beginning with the *first*.

$\times \times$

Só she stóve against her weakness,
 Though at times her spírits sáuk,
 Sháped her héart with wóman's meekness,
 Tó all dúties óf her ráuk
 A'nd a géntle cónsort máde he,
 A'nd her géntle mínd was súch,
 Thát she grew a nóble ládv,
 A'nd the peóple lóved hei múch.
 But a tróuble weígh'd upón hei,
 A'nd perpléx'd her níght and móin
 With the búrden óf an hónor
 U'nto wích she wás not bórn.—TENNYSON

Láv thy bów of peál apát,
 A'nd thy sílver shíníng quíver,
 Gíve untó the flýíng háut
 Tíme to bréáthe, how shóút soever,
 Thóu that mák'st a day of níght,
 Góddess éxqúisítely bríght —BEN JONSON.

§ 795

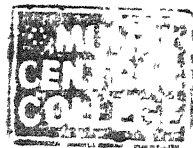
2. (*v a.*)

Lines wherein the accent falls on the second, fourth, and sixth syllables, *i e.* upon every second syllable, beginning from the *second*

On, ón he hásten'd, and he dréw
 My gáze of wónder ás he féw
 Though líke a démon of the níght
 He páss'd and 'ámsu'd from my síght,
 His áspect ánd his áir ímprest
 A tróubled mémoiy ón my bréást,
 And lóng upón my státtled éár
 Rung his dárk cóurser's hóofs of féar —BYRON.

The wár, that fór a spáce díd fáil,
 Now tréibly thúnder'd ón the gále.
 And Stánley wás the crý,
 A líght on Máimón's vísage shéd,
 And fired his glázíng eye
 With díyng hánd abóve his héád
 He shoók the frágments of his bláde,
 And shouted víctory —SCOTT.

On what foundation stands the warrior's pride?
 How just his hopes, let Swedish Charles decide
 A frame of adamant, a soul of fire,
 No dangers fright him, no misfortunes tire,



O'er Love, o'er Fear extends his wide domain,
 Unconquer'd lord of pleasure and of pain.
 No joy to him pacific sceptres yield,
 War sounds the trumpet, he rushes to the field,
 Behold auxiliar wings their powers combine,
 And one capitulate, and one resign
 Peace counts his hand, but spreads her charms in vain.
 "Think nothing gain'd," he cries, "till nought remain
 On Moscow's walls till Swedish banners fly,
 And all be mine beneath the polar sky"
 The march begins in military state,
 And nations on his eye suspended wait.
 Stern Famine guards the solitary coast,
 And Winter barricades the realms of frost.
 He comes! nor toil nor want his course delay
 Hide blushing Glory, hide Pulowa's day

His fall was destined to a barren strand,
 A petty fortress, and a dubious hand
 He left a name at which the world grew pale,
 To point a moral and adorn a tale — JOHNSON

§ 796.

5. (a b c)

Lines wherein the accent falls on the first and fourth syllables, *i e* upon every *third* syllable, beginning with the *first*.

Pibroch o' Dónnui Dhu!
 Pibroch o' Dónnui!
 Wáke thy shuill voice anew,
 Summon Clan Cónnuil.
 Cóme away, cóme away,
 Háik to the súmmons!
 Cóme in your wáa array,
 Gentles and cómmuns —
 Cóme ev'iy híl-plaid, and
 Tríe heart that wears one,
 Cóme ev'iy steel blade, and
 Stróng hand that bears one —
 Leáve the deer, leáve the steer,
 Leáve nets and bárges
 Cóme with your fighting-gear,
 Broádswords and tárges
 Cóme as the winds come, when
 Fórests are rénded,
 Cóme as the wáves come, when
 Návvies are stránded,

Fáster come, fáster come,
 Fáster and fáster,
 Chnéf, vassal, págo, and groom,
 Tenant and máster
 Fást they come, fást they come,
 Seé how they gáther '
 Wide waves the cágle plume,
 Blénded with heáther.
 Cást you plaids dháw yom blades,
 Fóward each mán set '
 Píbroch of Dónul Dhu.
 Knéll for the ónset — SCOTT

§ 797.

4 (x a x.)

Lines wherein the accent falls on the second and fifth syllables; *i. e.* upon every third syllable, beginning with the *second*.

The black bands came óver
 The Aíps and then snów,
 With Bóuibon, the róver,
 They páss'd the broad Pó
 We [have] beáten all [ou] foemen,
 We [have] captúred a kíng,
 We [have] túnn'd back on nó men.
 And só let us sing,
 "The Bóuibon for éver '
 Though pénnless áll.
 We 'll [have] óne móre endeávour
 At yónder old wall.
 With [the] Bóuibon we 'll gáther
 At dáy-dawn befóre
 The gátes, and togéther
 Or breák on chmb ó'ei
 The wáll · on the ládder
 As móunts each firm foót,
 Ou shóut shall be gládder,
 [And] death ónly be mute —
 The Bóuibon ' the Bóuibon '
 Sans cóuntay or hóme,
 We 'll fóllow the Bóuibon
 To plúnder old Róme " — BYRON

§ 798.

5 (x x a)

Lines wherein the accent falls on the third and sixth syllables; *i. e.* upon every *third* syllable, beginning with the *third*.

The metres of this measure are rarely regular, $x x a$ being frequently replaced by $x a x$ and $a x x$.

1

The Assýrian came dówn like a wól on the fóld,
And his cóhorts were gleáming in purple and góld
And the sheen of his speáirs was like stáirs on the séa,
When the blúe wave rolls nightly on deep Gablee

2

Like the káves of the fórest when súnner is green,
That hóst with then bálnéis at súnset were seen
Like the leáves of the fórest when autumn is blówn,
That hóst on the mórníng lay wíthér d and stówn.

3

Foí the A'ngel of Deáth spread his wings on the blást,
And breáthed in the fáce of the fée as he pass'd,
And the eyes of the sleepers wax d deá'ly and chíll,
And then heáirts but once heá'ed, and for ever grew stíll

4

And thére lay the steéd with his nó-tul all wíde,
But thóugh it there roll'd not the léáth of his príde
And the foán of his gáspíng lay white on the tuft,
And cóld as the spíráy of the rók-beating surf

5

And thére lay the íder dístórted and pále,
With the dew on his blów, and the rust on his máil,
And the ténts were all sílent, the bálnéis áloue,
The lánces unlífted, the trumpeť unblówn.

6

And the wídows of A'shu are lóud in then wáil,
And the ídols are bróke in the temple of Báal,
And the míght of the Géntile, unsmóte by the swórd,
Hath mélted like snów in the glánce of the Ló.d — BYRON.

Know ye the land where the cypress and ' myrtle
Are emblems of deeds that are done in their clime,
Where the rage of the vulture, the love of the turtle,
Now melt into sorrow, now madden to crime?
Know ye the land of the cedar and vine,
Where the flowers ever blossom, the beams ever shune,
Where the light wings of Zephyr, oppress'd with perfume,
Wax faint o'er the gardens of Göl in her bloom,

* The formula $x x a$ appears most in the middle and concluding lines of this extract

Where the citron and olive are fairest of fruit,
 And the voice of the nightingale never is mute
 Where the tints of the earth, and the hues of the sky,
 In colour though varied, in beauty may vie,
 And the purple of Ocean is deepest in dye,
 Where the virgins are soft as the roses they twine,
 And all, save the spirit of man, is divine?
 'T is the clime of the East, 't is the land of the Sun—
 Can he smile on such deeds as his children have done?
 Oh! wild as the accents of lover's farewell
 Are the hearts which they bear, and the tales which they tell
BYRON (*Bride of Abydos*)

§ 799 It is not always easy to tell where certain lines end,
 and where certain others begin Thus, we may read—

1

The Lord descended from above,
 And bow'd the heavens most high,
 And underneath his feet He cast
 The darkness of the sky.

2

On Cherubs and on Seraphim,
 Full royally He rode,
 And on the wings of mighty winds
 Came flying all abroad

But we may also read—

The Lord descended from above, and bow'd the heavens most high,
 And underneath his feet He cast the darkness of the sky.
 On Cherubs and on Seraphim full royally He rode,
 And on the wings of mighty winds came flying all abroad

In this matter the following distinction is convenient When the last syllable of the fourth measure (*i. e.* the eighth syllable in the line) in the one verse *rhymes* with the corresponding syllable in the other, the long verse should be looked upon as broken up into two short ones; in other words, the couplets should be dealt with as a stanza. Where there is no rhyme except at the seventh measure, the verse should remain undivided Thus—

Turn, gentle hermit of the glen, and guide thy lonely way
 To where yon taper cheers the vale with hospitable ray—

constitute a single couplet of two lines, the number of rhymes being two But—

Turn, gentle hermit of the dale.
 And guide thy lonely way
 To where yon taper cheers the vale
 With hospitable ray—

constitute a stanza of four lines, the number of rhymes being four.

To carry this principle throughout our metres may, perhaps, be inconvenient. Lines as short as—

It scream'd and growl'd, and crack'd and howl'd,

it would divide into two.

On the other hand, lines as long as—

Where Virtue wants and Vice abounds
 And wealth is but a baited hook,

it would make one of.

Thus the former would run—

It scream'd and growl'd.
 And crack'd and howl'd, &c ,

whereas the second would be—

Where Virtue wants and Vice abounds, and wealth is but a baited
 hook, &c

Nevertheless, the principle is suggested

CHAPTER VI.

CHIEF ENGLISH METRES

§ 800. *VERSES formed by the First Measure*, or a x —1 A verse so short as to consist of a single accented syllable can be conceived to exist Its formula would be a x — I know of no actual specimens The next in point of brevity would be a x . This also is either non-existent, or too rare to be of practical importance.

§ 801. Verses of Two Measures. Formula $a x a x$, or $a x \times 2$.

Rich the treasure,
 Sweet the pleasure.—DRYDEN

Verses of Formula $a x a x -$, or $a x \times 2 -$.

Túmult ceáse,
Sink to peace

§ 802. Three Measures Formula $a x \times 3$

E'very drop we spinkle
Smoothes away a wrinkle

Formula $a x \times 3 -$.

Fill the búmper fáir—
O'n the brów of cáie

The two varieties of this formula, rhyming alternately, constitute the following stanza .—

Fill the búmper fáir ,
E'very drop we spinkle,
O'n the brów of cáie,
Smoothes away a wrinkle.

Sages cán, they say,
Seize the lightning's pínion,
A'nd bring dówn its láy
Fróm the stán'd dommon —MOORE

§ 803 Four Measures Formula $a x \times 4$

Thén her cóúntenánce all oíer—
Bút he clasp'd her like a lóvei

Formula $a x \times 4 -$.

Pále agám as deáth did próve—
A'nd he cheér'd her soíl with lóve

These two varieties alternating, and with rhyme, constitute one of the commonest metres, of which $a x$ is the basis

Thén her cóúntenánce all óver
Pále again as deáth did próve,
Bút he clasp'd her like a lóver,
A'nd he cheér'd her soul with love —TENNYSON

§ 804 Five Measures Formula $a x \times 5$.

Naríowing in to whéie they sat assémbled,
Lów voluptuous músic wínding tíembled

Formula $a x \times 5 -$.

Thén methóught I heard a lóllow sóund,
Gáth'ring úp fróm áll the lówer gróund

The two varieties mixed.—

Then methought I heard a hollow sound,
 Gath'ring up from all the lower ground
 Narrowing in to where they sat assembled,
 Low voluptuous music winding trembled,
 Wov'n in circles they that heard it sigh'd,
 Panted, hand in hand, with faces pale,
 Swung themselves, and in low tones replied,
 Till the fountain spouted, showering wide
 Sleet of diamond-dust, and pearly hail
 Then the music touch'd the gates and died

TENNYSON

§ 805. Six Measures Formula $a x \times 6$, or $a x \times 6$ —

O'n a mou'ntain, strétch'd beneath a ho'ary willow,
 Lay a shépheid swáin, and view'd the rólling bíllow

§ 806. Seven Measures Formula $a x \times 7$, or $a x \times 7$ —

We have hád enóugh of áction and of mótion, we—
 Lét us swear an oath, and keep it, with an équal mínd—

§ 807 Eight Measures Formula $a x \times 8$, or $a x \times 8$ —

Cómadés, léave me hére a líttle, whíle as yét 'tis éaily móin
 Leave me hére, and, when you want me, sóund upón the búgle hóin

Lines of this formula occur sometimes unmixed, and constituting whole poems; as—

Here about the beach I wander d, nourishing a youth sublime
 With the fany tales of science, and the long results of Time,

When the centuries behind me, like a fruitful land reposed,
 When I clung to all the Present for the promise that it closed,

When I dipp'd into the Future, far as human eye could see,
 Saw the vision of the world, and all the wonder that would be—

In the spring a fuller crimson comes upon the robin's breast,
 In the spring the wanton lapwing gets himself another crest

In the spring a livelier ris changes on the burnish'd dove,
 In the spring a young man's fancy lightly turns to thoughts of love

Then her cheek was pale and thinner than should be for one so young
 And her eyes on all my motions with a mute observance hung.

And I said, "My cousin Amy, speak and speak the truth to me,
 Trust me, cousin, all the current of my being sets to thee"

TENNYSON (*Lockesley Hall*)

Sometimes mixed with other measures (as with lines of formula $a \times 7$).—

We have had enough of action and of motion, we
 Roll'd to larboard, roll'd to starboard, when the surge was settling free,
 Where the wallowing monster spouted his foam-fountains in the sea
 Let us swear an oath, and keep it with an equal mind,
 In the hollow lotos-land to live and lie reclined
 On the hills, like gods together, careless of mankind.
 For they lie beside their nectar, and their bolts are hush'd
 Far below them in the valleys, and the clouds are lightly curl'd
 Round their golden houses, gilded with the gleaming world,
 Where they smile in secret, looking over wasted lands,
 Blight and famine, plague and earthquake, roaring deeps and fiery sands,
 Clanging fights, and flaming towns, and sinking ships, and praying hands.—
 Surely, surely slumber is more sweet than toil, the shore,
 Than labour in the deep mid ocean, wind, and wave, and oar
 Oh! rest ye, brother mariners, we will not wander more

TENNYSON

Lines based upon $a \times$ are rarely without rhymes; in other words, they rarely constitute blank verse.

§ 808. *Verses formed by the Second Measure, or $a \times$ —1*
 Lines so short as to be reducible to $a \times$ are of too rare an occurrence to demand special notice

Formula $a \times +$

Thou Béng
 All-seéng,
 Oh hear my fervent prayer,
 Still táke her,
 And máke her
 Thy most peculiar care —BURNS.

Generally two lines of this formula are arranged as single verses. Such is the case with those just quoted, that are printed—

Thou Béng, all-seéng,
 Oh hear my fervent prayer,
 Still táke her, and máke her,
 Thy most peculiar care

§ 809. Two measures. Formula $a \times 2$

Unheáid, unknoón,
 He makes his moán—

What sounds were heard '
 What scenes appear'd—
 The streams decay,
 And melt away—POP.

Formula $a \times 2 +$

Upón a moúntain
 Beside a foúntain

§ 810 Three measures. Formula $a \times 3$.

With hollow blásts of wind—
 All ón a rók reclined

Formula $a \times 3 +$

'Twas when the scás were roáring—
 A dámsel láy déploing

The alternation of the two varieties of $a \times 3$ constitutes what may be called Gay's stanza

Twas when the seas were roaring
 With hollow blasts of wind,
 A damsel lay deploing,
 All on a rock reclined
 Wide o'er the foaming billows
 She cast a wistful look,
 Her head was crown'd with willows,
 That trembled o'er the brook—GAY

Cold sweat is plashing o'er them,
 Their breasts are beating slow.
 The sands and shelves before them
 Flash fire at every blow
 Then fellows stand in fear of
 The upshot of the fray;
 The child unborn shall hear of
 The wrestling of that day

§ 811. Four measures Formula $a \times 4$.

On, on he hasten'd, and he drew
 My gaze of wonder as he flew

§ 812. Five measures. Formula $a \times 5$.

Fond fool! six feet of earth is all thy store,
 And he that seeks for all shall have no more—HALL

Formula $a \times 5 +$

The meeting points the sacred hau dissever
From her fair head for ever and for ever—POPE

This last is the standard metre of the English language. In point of time it is one of our earliest forms of verse. It was written by Chaucer in the fourteenth century, is written by the poets of the present generation, and has been used by most writers of the intermediate period. Its chief cultivators have been Chaucer, Dryden, Pope, Cowper, and Byron, in rhyme; and Milton and the dramatists in blank verse. In character it has every variety. For serious poetry (except in the drama) it is considered that the admission of an extra syllable at the end of the line (*i. e.* formula $a \times 5 +$) is exceptionable. Whenever it occurs in Milton, it is found fault with by Johnson, and the same author asserts, that, with one exception, it always appears disadvantageously in Pope. In the drama, where the language of common life is more especially imitated, the formula $a \times 5 +$ is not only admissible but necessary.

§ 813. The general term for metres of the form in question is Heroic. The first division into which the heroic metres fall is into—*a.* Blank heroics; *b.* Rhyming heroics.

§ 814. *Blank Heroics*—Blank heroics, or blank verse, as it is generally called, falls into two varieties, determined by the nature of the subject-matter. *a.* Dramatic blank verse; *b.* Narrative blank verse.

§ 815. *Dramatic Blank Verse*—With the exception of the earliest dramas in the language, and some rhyming tragedies written in imitation of the French about the time of Charles II, the writings for the English stage consist chiefly of either prose or blank verse. It is in blank verse that most tragedies and many comedies are either wholly or partially written. Dramatic blank verse not only admits, but calls for, the formula $a \times 5 +$. Often there are two supernumerary syllables. In rhyming metres these would constitute double rhymes.

Othello's Speech before the Senators.

Most potent, grave, and reverend seigniors,
My very noble and approv'd good masters,—
That I have ta'en away this old man's daughter,
It is most true, true, I have married her,

The very head and front of my offending
 Hath this extent, no more Rude I'm in speech,
 And little bless'd with the set phrase of peace,
 For since these arms of mine had seven years' pith
 Till now some nine moons wasted they have us'd
 Their dearest action in the tented field
 And little of this great world can I speak,
 More than pertains to feats of broil and battle,
 And therefore little shall I grace my cause
 In speaking of myself, yet by your patience
 I will a round, unvarnish'd tale deliver
 Of my whole course of love what drugs, what charms,
 What conjuration, and what mighty magic,
 (For such proceedings am I charg'd withal,)
 I won his daughter with —SHAKESPEARE

§ 816 *Narrative Blank Verse* —The metre of *Paradise Lost*,
Paradise Regain'd, Young's *Night Thoughts*, Cowper's *Task*,
 Cowper's *Homer* &c

Nine times the space that measures day and night
 To mortal men he, with his hoar'd crew,
 Lay vanquish'd, rolling in the fiery gulf
 Confounded, though immortal but his doom
 Preserved him to more wrath, for now the thought
 Both of lost happiness and lasting pain
 Torments him

Here the admission of a supernumerary final syllable is
 rare Lines of *eleven* syllables like the following are un-
 common.

Of sovran power with awful ceremony

Paradise Lost, b i.

§ 817. *Rhyming Heroics*.—In proportion as the subject is se-
 rious and dignified, the use of double and treble rhymes is avoided.

§ 818. Six measures. Formulas $x a \times 6$, and $w a \times 6 +$

He lifted up his hand that back again did saít —SPENSER

Ye sacred bánds that to your láaps' melodious strings
 Sung th' áncient heroes' deéds, the móauments of kíngs,
 If, ás those Drúds taúght who képt the Brítish ítes,
 And dwelt in dárk some gróves, there cóunselling with spítes,
 When these our sóuls by deáth our bódiés dó forsáke,
 They instantly agáin to óther bódiés take,
 I cóuld have wísh'd your sóuls redóubled ín my bréast
 To give my vérsé appláuse to tíme's etérnal rest —DRAYTON

§ 819. Seven measures. Formulas $a \times 7$, and $a \times 7 +$

But one request I make to Him that sits the skies above,
 That I were freely out of debt as I were out of love,
 Oh, then to dance and sing and play I should be very willing,
 I'd never owe a maid a kiss, and ne'er a knave a shilling

SUCKLING

§ 820. Eight measures Formulas $a \times 8$, and $a \times 8 +$.

Where Virtue wants and Vice abounds, and wealth is but a baited
 hook
 Wherewith men swallow down the bane before on danger dark they
 look

§ 821. *Verses formed upon the Third Measure, or $a \times x$ —*
 Verses formed upon measure $a \times x$ are neither frequent nor
 regular Generally there is the deficiency of some unaccented
 syllable in which the formula is reduced to $a \times x$ —which may
 be confounded with the first measure, or $a \times x$ The point to
 determine is, whether the general character of the verse be tri-
 syllabic or dissyllabic

§ 822. Two measures Formulas $a \times x \times 2$, and $a \times x \times 2 -$.
 Of these the latter is most common. Not only one of
 the unaccented syllables, but even both of them are frequently
 wanting at the end of lines

Where shall the lover rest,
 Whom the Fates sévei,
 Fíom his true maiden's breast,
 Páited for ever?
 Where through gróves déep and high
 Sóunds the far bíllow,
 Where early víolets die
 U'nder the wíllow —SCOTT

O'ft have I seen the sun,
 Tó do he: hónou,
 Fíx himself át his noon
 Tó look upón her,
 And hath gílt é'ry grove
 E'v'y hüll near her,
 With his flames fíom above,
 Stríving to cheér her
 A'nd when she fíom his sight
 Há'h herself túm'd,
 He, as it há't been níght,
 I'n clouds hath móurn'd —DRAYTON

§ 823 Three measures Formulas $a a x \times 3$, and $a x x \times 3$ —

Peáce to thee, ísle of the óccan,
Peáce to thy breezes and billows! — BYRON

§ 824. Four Measures. Formulas $a x x \times 4$, and $a x a x \times 4$ —.

Méinly, méinly sháll I live nów
Under the blóssom that hángs on the bougħ — SHAKESPEARE

(1)

Wáiríois or chieífs, should the sháft of the swóid
Pierce me in leading the hóst of the Lóid,
Heed not the córpse, though a kíng's in your path
Bury your steel in the bósoms of Gáth

(2)

Thóu, who art beáring my búckler and bów,
Should the soldiérs of Saul look away from the foe,
Láy me that móment in bloód at thy feet
Míne be the doóm that they dare not to meet

(3)

Fárewell to óthers, but never we part,
Heá! to my róyalty, són of my héart,
Bright be the diádem, boundless the swáy,
O! kíngly the deáth that awaits us to-day — BYRON

§ 825 *Verses formed upon the Fourth Measure, or $a a x$ —*
Verses of a single measure are equivocal, since $a a x$ cannot be distinguished from $a a +$, and $a a x -$ is identical in form with $a a$. The general character of the verses in the neighbourhood determine, whether measures of this sort shall be looked upon as dissyllabic or trisyllabic

§ 826 Two measures. Formulas $a a x \times 2$, and $a x a x \times 2$ —.

Besíde her mo land
Her mattock and spáde—
Alóne she is thére,
Her shóúlders mo l áre—
E'ver alóne
She máketh her moán.— TENNYSON

But vainly thou wárest,
For this is alóne in
Thy pówer to declare,
That, in the dun fórest,
Thou heárd'st a low méáning — COLERIDGE

§ 827. Three measures Formulas $x a x \times 3$, and $x a x \times 3 -$.

I've found out a gift for my fáir,
 I've found where the wood-pigeons breed.
 But let me that plúader forbéar,
 She'll say 't was a bábarous deed
 He né'er could be true, she avér'd,
 Who [would] íób a poor bínd of its yóung,
 [And] I loved her the móie when I héard
 Such ténderness fáll from her tóngue — SHENSTONE

A cónquest how hárd and how glórious,
 Though fáte had fast bóund her,
 With Stýx nine times íóund her,
 Yet músic and love were victórious — POPE

§ 828. Four measures. Formulas $x a x \times 4$, and $x a x \times 4 -$.

The wórld will not chángé, and her héart will not breáke
TENNYSON

Remémber the glóries of Búan the bráve — MOORE

Oh húsh thee, my bábie, thy síe was a kníght,
 Thy móther a lády both lóvely and bríght
 The wóods, and the gléns, and the tówers which we see,
 They áll are belongíng, dear bábie, to thee — SCOTT

I ask not the pleasúres that íches supply,
 My sábie must win what the weaker must buy
 [It] shall win the fan bríde with her long flówing han,
 And many a maid from her móther shall tear

I love the fáir face of the maid in her yóuth,
 [Her] caresses shall lull me, her músic shall soothe
 [Let] her bring to my chambei the many-toned lyre,
 And sung me a song on the fall of her síre — BYRON

Oh' yóung Lochmúar is come óut of the wést
 Through áll the wíde bóíder his steéds are the bést,
 And, sáve his good bróádsword, he weápons had nóne,
 He íóde álí unáím'd, and he íóde álí ólone
 So fáithful in lóve, and so gállant in wáí,
 [Did] ye e'ér heu of brídegroom líke yóung Lochmúar? — SCOTT

[Thanks,] my Lóid, for your vén'son, for finer nor fáttér
 Né'er íánged in the fórest nor smóked on the pláttér:
 The fíesh was a pícture for painters to stúdy,
 The fat was so wíte, and the léán was so rúddy
 [Though] my stómach was sháíp, I could scáice help regéttíng
 To spóil such a delícate pícture by eátíng — GOLDSMITH

§ 829 *Verses formed upon the Fifth Measure, or x x a*1 Formula $x x a$

As ye sweép
Through the deép.—CAMPBELL

Usually—

As ye sweép, through the deép

§ 830 Formula $x x a \times 2$.

In my íáge shall be seen
The revénge of a queen —ADDISON

§ 831 Formula $x x a \times 3$

Mixed with 2

See the snákes how they ícái,
How they híss in the aín,
And the spáikles they flásh from their eyes —DRYDEN

§ 832 Formula $x x a \times 4$

And the king seized a flámbeau with zeal to destíoy —DRIYDEN

§ 833 Formula $x x a \times 5$. } Rare, if real
Formula $x x a \times 6$ }
Formula $x x a \times 7$ —

Now he róde on the wáves of the wide rolling sea, and he fórayed róund like
a háwk.

It is only the postulate of p 668, in respect to the effect of
a rhyme or its absence, that makes this a single line rather
than two

§ 834 *Nomenclature of English metres*—It is only a few
of the English metres that are known by fixed names They
are as follows:—

1 *Gay's Stanza*—Lines of three measures, $x a$, with
alternate rhymes. The odd (*i e* the 1st and 3rd) rhymes
double

'T was when the seas were roaring
With hollow blasts of wind,
A damsel lay deploying,
All on a rock reclined

Iambic Trimeter, Hypermetric

2 *Common Octosyllabics*.—Four measures, $x a$, with rhyme
and (unless the rhymes be double) eight syllables (*octo syllabre*)

Iambic Tetrameter

—Butler's *Hudibras*, Scott's poems, *The Giaour*, and other poems of Lord Byron.

3. *Elegiac Octosyllabics*.—Same as the last, except that the rhymes are regularly alternate, and the verses arranged in stanzas

And on her lover's arm she leant,
And round her waist she felt it fold,
And far across the hills they went,
In that new world which now is old.
Across the hills and far away,
Beyond their utmost purple rim,
And deep into the dying day
The happy princess follow'd him —TENNYSON

4. *Octosyllabic Triplets*.—Three rhymes in succession Generally arranged as stanzas

I blest them, and they wander'd on,
I spoke, but answer came there none
The dull and bitter voice was gone —TENNYSON

5. *Blank Verse*.—Five measures, *x a*, without rhyme. *Paradise Lost*, Young's *Night Thoughts*, Cowper's *Task*

6. *Heroic Couplets*—Five measures, *x a*, with pairs of rhymes Chaucer, Denham, Dryden, Waller, Pope, Goldsmith, Cowper, Byron, Moore, Shelley, &c. This is the common metre for narrative, didactic, and descriptive poetry.

7. *Heroic Triplets*—Five measures, *x a* Three rhymes in succession. Arranged in stanzas. This metre is sometimes interposed among heroic couplets.

8. *Elegiacs*—Five measures, *x a*, with regularly-alternate rhymes, and arranged in stanzas.

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herds wind slowly o'er the lea,
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me —GRAY

9. *Rhymes Royal*.—Seven lines of heroics, with the last two rhymes in succession, and the first five recurring at intervals

This Trilus, in gift of curtesie,
With hawk on hond, and with a huge rout
Of knightes, rode, and did her company,
Passing all through the valley far about,
And further would have ridden out of doubt
Full fame and woe was him to gone so sone
But turn he must, and it was eke to doen —CHAUCER

This metre was common with the writers of the earlier part of Queen Elizabeth's reign. It admits of varieties according to the distribution of the first five rhymes

10. *Ottava Rima* —A metre with an Italian name, and borrowed from Italy, where it is used generally for narrative poetry. The *Morgante Maggiore* of Pulci, the *Orlando Innamorato* of Bojardo, the *Orlando Furioso* of Ariosto, the *Gierusalemme Liberata* of Tasso, are all written in this metre. Besides this, the two chief epics of Spain and Portugal respectively (the *Araucana* and the *Os Lusíadas*) are thus composed. Hence it is a form of poetry which is Continental rather than English, and naturalized rather than indigenous. The stanza consists of eight lines of heroics, the six first rhyming alternately, the last two in succession

Arrived there, a prodigious noise he hears,
Which suddenly along the forest spread.
Whereat from out his quiver he prepares
An arrow for his bow, and lifts his head.
And, lo! a monstrous head of swine appears,
And onward rushes with tempestuous tread,
And to the fountain's brink precisely pous,
So that the giant's join'd by all the boars
Morgante Maggiore (Lord Byron's Translation)

11 *Terza Rima*.—Like the last, borrowed both in name and nature from the Italian, and scarcely yet naturalized in England.

The Spirit of the fervent days of old,
When words were things that came to pass, and Thought
Flash'd o'er the future, bidding men behold
Their children's children's doom already brought
Forth from the abyss of Time which is to be,
The Chaos of events where he half-wrought
Shapes that must undergo mortality
What the great seers of Israel wore within,
That Spirit was on them and is on me,
And if, Cassandra-like, amidst the din
Of conflicts, none will hear, or hearing heed
This voice from out the Wilderness, the sin
Be theirs, and my own feelings be my meed,
The only guerdon I have ever known.

12. *Alexandrines*.—Six measures, *x a*, generally (perhaps always) with rhyme. The name is said to be taken from the fact that early romances upon the deeds of Alexander of Navarrelon used, each in its stanza, to close a period of Heroic rhyme.

Lord Byron's

Y Y 2

Macedon, of great popularity, were written in this metre. One of the longest poems in the English language is in Alexandrines, viz. Drayton's *Polly-olbion*

13 *Spenserian Stanza*—A stanza consisting of nine lines, the eight first heroics, the last an Alexandrine

It hath been through all ages ever seen,
That with the prize of arms and chivalrie
The prize of beauty still hath joined been,
And for that reason's special privitie,
For either doth on other much rely
For he mesecms most fit the farr to serve
That can her best defend from villanie,
And she most fit his service doth deserve
That truest is, and from her fath will never swerve

SPENSER

Childe Harold and other important poems are composed in the Spenserian stanza.

14. *Service Metre*—Couplets of seven measures, *x a*. This is the common metre of the Psalm versions. It is also called Common Measure, or Long Measure

15. *Ballad Stanza*—Service metres broken up in the way suggested in p 668. Goldsmith's *Edwin and Angelina*, &c

16 *Poulterer's Measure*—Alexandrines and service metre alternately. Found in the poetry of Henry the Eighth's time

No other amongst the numerous English metres have hitherto received names

CHAPTER VII

SYMMETRICAL, UNSYMMETRICAL, AND CONVERTIBLE METRES.— RHYTHM

§ 835. METRE is the recurrence, within certain intervals, of syllables similarly affected

The particular way in which syllables are *affected* in English metres is that of *accent*.

The more regular the period at which similar accents recur the more typical the metre

Nevertheless absolute regularity is not requisite

This leads to the difference between symmetrical and unsymmetrical metres.

§ 836. *Symmetrical Metres*.—Allowing for indifference of the number of syllables in the last measure, it is evident that in all lines where the measures are dissyllabic the syllables will be a multiple of the accents, *i. e.* they will be twice as numerous. Hence, with three accents there are six syllables; with four accents, eight syllables, &c

Similarly, in all lines where the measures are trisyllabic the syllables will also be multiples of the accents, *i. e.* they will be thrice as numerous. Hence, with three accents there will be nine syllables, with four accents, twelve syllables, and with seven accents, twenty-one syllables.

Lines of this sort may be called symmetrical.

§ 837. *Unsymmetrical Metres*.—Lines, where the syllables are *not* a multiple of the accents, may be called unsymmetrical. Occasional specimens of such lines occur interspersed amongst others of symmetrical character. Where this occurs the general character of the versification may be considered as symmetrical also.

The case, however, is different where the whole character of the versification is unsymmetrical, as it is in the greater part of Coleridge's *Christabel* and Byron's *Siege of Corinth*.

In the year since Jesus died for mén,
Eighteen hundred yeás and tén
We were a gállant cómpany',
Ríding o'er lánd and sáiling o'er sca
O'h' but wé went méinly'
We fóided the ríver, and clómb the high híll.
Néver our steéds for a day stood stíll
Whóther we láy in the cáve or the shed,
Our sleép fell sóft on the háidest béd,
Whéther we cóuch'd on our róugh capóte,
Or the róughér pláńks of our glídíng bóat,
Or stáetch'd on the beách, or our sáddles spread
As a píllow beneáth the réstíng héad,
Fíesh we wóke upon the móúow
A'll our thóughts and wóids had scópe,
Wé had health and wé had hópe,
Tóil and trável, bút no sóúow

Here the formula is—

.. a a u a u a a a
a u a u a a

That the second mode of reading the line in question is the proper one, may be shown by reference to the stanza wherein it occurs.

Let E'm remémber her dáy's of old,
 Ere her faithless sóns betráy'd her,
 When Málaeh wóre the cóllar of góld
 Which he wón from the próud inváder

Again, such a line as

For the glóry I have lost,

although it may be read

For the glóry I have lóst,

would be read improperly. The stanza wherein it occurs is essentially dissyllabic (*a x*)

Heéd, oh, heéd my fáta! stóy !
 I' am Hósier's injúred ghóst,
 Cóme to seek for fáne and glóry—
 Fór the glóry I' have lóst

§ 839. *Metrical and Grammatical Combinations*.—Words, or parts of words, that are combined as measures, are words, or parts of words, combined *metrically*, or in *metrical combination*.

Syllables combined as words, or words combined as portions of a sentence, are syllables and words *grammatically combined*, or in *grammatical combination*.

The syllables *ere her faith-* form a metrical combination.

The words *her faithless sons* form a grammatical combination

When the syllables contained in the same measure (or connected metrically) are also contained in the same construction (or connected grammatically), the metrical and the grammatical combinations coincide. Such is the case with the line

Remember | the glóries | of Brían | the Bráve,

where the same division separates both the measure and the subdivisions of the sense, inasmuch as the word *the* is connected with the word *glories* equally in grammar and in metre, in syntax and in prosody. So is *of* with *Brian*, and *the* with *Brave*

Contrast with this such a line as

A chieftain to the Highlands bound

Here the metrical division is one thing, the grammatical division another, and there is no coincidence.

Metrical,

A chief | tam tó | the High | lands bóund

Grammatical,

A chieftain | to the Highlands | bound

In the following stanza the coincidence of the metrical and grammatical combination is nearly complete.—

To áims' to aims' The séifs, they róam
O'éi hÍll, and dále, and glén
The kíng is deád, and tíme is cóme
To choóse a chuíf agáin

In

Wáamors or chiefs, should the sháft or the swóid
Pierce me in léading the hóst of the Lóid,
Heed not the córpse, though a kíng 's in your path,
Bury your steel in the bósons of Gáth —BYRON

there is a non-coincidence equally complete.

§ 840. *Rhythm*—The character of a metre is marked and prominent in proportion as the metrical and the grammatical combinations coincide. The extent to which the measure *a x a* is the basis of the stanza last quoted is concealed by the antagonism of the metre and the construction. If it were not for the axiom, that *every metre is to be considered uniform until there is proof to the contrary*, the lines might be divided thus :—

a c c a x x a x x a
a x x a x x a x x a
a x x a c x a x x a
a x x a x a x x a

The variety which arises in versification from the different degrees between the coincidence and the non-coincidence between the metrical and grammatical combinations may be called *Rhythm*.

§ 841. The majority of English *words* are of the form *a x*,

that is, words like *týrant* are commoner than words like *pre-súme*.

The majority of English *metres* are of the form *a a*; that is, lines like

The wáy was lóng, the wínd was cöld,

are commoner than lines like

Queen and húntréss, cháste and fárr

The multitude of unaccentuated words like *the, from, &c.*, taken along with the fact that they *precede* the words with which they agree, or which they govern, accounts for the apparent antagonism between the formulæ of our *words* and the formulæ of our *metres*. The contrast between a Swedish line of the form *a x*, and its literal English version in *a a*, shows this.

In Swedish the secondary part of the construction *follows*, in English it *precedes* the main word.

Swedish

Váren kómmer, túglen quítta, skóven lo'fvas, sólen ló.

English

The spring is come, the bird is blythe, the wood is green, the sun is bright

In this way Syntax affects Prosody.

CHAPTER VIII.

ENGLISH ANALOGUES OF THE CLASSICAL METRES.

§ 842. *THE Classical Metres as read by Englishmen.*—The metres of the classical languages consist essentially in the recurrence of similar quantities; *accent playing a part*.—Now there are reasons for investigating the facts involved in this statement more closely than has hitherto been done; since the following circumstances make some inquiry into the extent of the differences between the English and the classical systems of metre, an appropriate element of a word upon the English language

1. The classical poets are authors pre-eminently familiarized to the educated English reader

2. The notions imbibed from a study of the classical prosodies have been unduly mixed up with those which should have been derived more especially from the poetry of the German nations.

3. The attempt to introduce (so-called) Latin and Greek metres into the German tongues, has been partially successful on the Continent, and not unattempted in Great Britain.

The first of these statements requires no comment.

The second will bear some illustration. The English grammarians sometimes borrow the classical terms, *iambic*, *trochee*, &c, and apply them to their own metres.

How is this done? In two ways, one of which is wholly incorrect, the other partially correct, but inconvenient.

To imagine that we have in English, for the practical purposes of prosody, syllables *long in quantity* or *short in quantity*, syllables capable of being arranged in groups constituting feet, and feet adapted for the construction of hexametres, pentametres, sapphics, and alcaics, just as the Latins and Greeks had, is wholly incorrect. The English system of versification is founded, not upon the periodic recurrence of similar *quantities*, but upon the periodic recurrence of similar accents.

The less incorrect method consists in giving up all ideas of the existence of *quantity*, in the proper sense of the word, as an essential element in English metre; whilst we admit *accent* as its equivalent; in which case the presence of an accent is supposed to have the same import as the lengthening, and the absence of one, as the shortening, of a syllable; so that, *mutatis mutandis*, *a* is the equivalent to — , and *x* to v .

In this case the metrical notation for—

The wáy was lóng, the wínd was cóld—
Méinly, méinly, sháll I live nów—

would be, not—

a a, x a, x a, x a
a x x, a x x, a x x, a

respectively, but—

•
v v v v v
v v v v v

Again—

As they splash in the blood of the slippery street,
is not—

a c a, i x a, a a a r a a,

but—

u u u u u u u u

With this view there are a certain number of classical *feet*, with their syllables affected in the way of *quantity*, to which there are equivalent English *measures* with their syllables affected in the way of *accent*. Thus if the formula

A, - -	be a classical, the formula	a x	is an English	<i>trochee</i>
B, - -	„ „	x a	„	<i>iambus</i>
C, - - -	„ „	a x x	„	<i>dactyle</i>
D, - - -	„ „	x a x	„	<i>amphibrachys</i> .
E, - - -	„ „	x x a	„	<i>anapaest</i>

And so on in respect to the larger groups of similarly-affected syllables which constitute whole lines and stanzas; verses like

- A Come to seek for fame and glory—
- B The way was long, the wind was cold—
- C Merrily, merrily, shall I live now—
- D But vainly thou walkest—
- E At the close of the day when the hamlet is still—

are (A), trochaic, (B), iambic; (C), dactylic; (D), amphibrachyeh; and (E), anapaestic, respectively.

And so, with the exception of the word *amphibrachyeh* (which I do not remember to have seen), the terms have been used. And so, with the same exception, systems of versification have been classified

§ 843 *Reasons against the classical nomenclature as applied to English metres*—These lie in the two following facts:—

- 1 Certain English metres have often a very different character from their supposed classical analogues
- 2 Certain classical *feet* have no English equivalents
1. Compare such a so-called English anapaest as—

As they splash in the blood of the slippery street—

with

Δεκατον μεν ετος τοδ' επει Πριαμω

For the latter line to have such a movement as the former, it must be read thus—

Dekatón men etós to d' epei Pnamón

Now we know well that, whatever may be an English scholar's notions of the Greek accents, this is not the way in which he reads Greek anapæsts

Again the *trochaic* movement of the *iambic* senarius is a point upon which the most exclusive Greek metrists have insisted; urging the necessity of reading (for example) the first line in the Hecuba—

Hæ'ko nekion keuthmóna kai skótou pýlas

rather than—

Hækó nekrón keuthmóna kai skotóu pylás.

I have said that *certain English metres have* often a *very different metrical character*, &c. I can strengthen the reasons against the use of classical terms in English prosody, by enlarging upon the word *often*. The frequency of the occurrence of a difference of character between classical and English metres similarly named is not a matter of *accident*, but is, in many cases, a necessity arising out of the structure of the English language as compared with that of the Greek and Latin—especially the Greek.

With the exception of the so-called second futures, there is no word in Greek whereof the *last* syllable is accented. Hence, no English line ending with an accented syllable can have a Greek equivalent. Accent for accent—

<i>Greek</i>	<i>Latin</i>	<i>English</i>
Τύπτο,	Vóco,	= Týant,
Τύπτomen,	Scrubere,	= Mémily,
Keuthmóna,	Vidístas,	= Disáble,

but no Greek word (with the exception of the so-called second futures like νεμῶ = *nemō*), and (probably) no Latin word at all, is accented like *presúme* and *cavalíer*

From this it follows that although the first three measures of such so-called English anapæsts as—

As they splásh in the blóod of the slíppery stréet,

may be represented by Greek equivalents (*i. e.* equivalents in the way of accent)—

Ep' omóisi feiósusi ta kleína prosóp' !—

a parallel to the last measure (*-ery streét*) can only be got at by one of two methods; *i. e.* by making the verse end in a so-called second future, or else in a vowel preceded by an accented syllable, and cut off—

Ep' omóisi feiósusi ta kleína nemó—

or,

Ep' omóisi feiósusi tá kleína prosóp' *

Now it is clear that when, over and above the fact that certain Greek metres having a different movement from their supposed English equivalents, there is the additional circumstance of such an incompatibility being less an accident than a necessary effect of difference of character in the two languages, the use of terms suggestive of a closer likeness than either does or never can exist is to be condemned; and this is the case with the words *dactylic*, *trochaic*, *iambic*, *anapestic*, as applied to English versification.

2. Whoever has considered the principles of English prosody, must have realized the important fact that, *ex vi termini*, *no English measure can have either more or less than one accented syllable*

On the other hand, the classical metrists have several measures wherein there is more than one long syllable. Thus, to go no farther than the trisyllabic feet, we have the pyrrhic (˘˘) and tribach (˘˘˘) without a long syllable at all, and the spondee (— —), amphimacer (˘ —, and molossus (— — —) with more than one. It follows then, that (even *mutatis mutandis*, *i. e.* with the accent considered as the equivalent to the long syllable) English pyrrhics, English tribachs, English amphimacers, English spondees, and English molossi, are, each and all, prosodial impossibilities.

It is submitted to the reader that the latter reason (based wholly upon the limitations that arise out of the structure

* For *prosópa*. The Greek has been transliterated into English for the sake of showing the effect of the accents more conveniently

of language) strengthens the objections of the previous section.

§ 844 *The classical metres metrical even to English readers*—The attention of the reader is directed to the difficulty involved in the following (apparently or partially) contradictory facts

1 Accent and quantity differ, and the metrical systems founded upon them differ also.

2. The classical systems are founded upon quantity

3. The English upon accent.

4 Nevertheless, notwithstanding the difference of the principle upon which they are constructed, the classical metres, even as read by Englishmen, and read *accentually*, are metrical to English ears.

Preliminary to the investigation of the problem in question it is necessary to remark—

1 That the correctness or incorrectness of the English pronunciation of the dead languages has nothing to do with the matter. Whether we read Homer exactly as Homer would read his own immortal poems, or whether we read them in such a way as would be unintelligible to Homer reappearing upon earth, is perfectly indifferent

2 That whether we pronounce the anapæst *pătŭlŭr*, precisely as we pronounce the dactyle *Titŭrĕ*, or draw a distinction between them, is also indifferent. However much, as is done in some of the schools, we may say *scri-bere* rather than *scrib-ere*, or *am-or*, rather than *a-mor*, under the notion that we are lengthening or shortening certain syllables, one unsurmountable dilemma still remains, viz. that the shorter we pronounce the vowel, the more we suggest the notion of the consonant which follows it being doubled, whilst double consonants *lengthen* the vowel which precedes them. Hence, whilst it is certain that *patulæ* and *Tityre* may be pronounced (and that without hurting the metre) so as to be both of the same *quantity*, it is doubtful what that *quantity* is. Sound for sound, *Tityre* may be as short as *pătulæ*. Sound for sound, *pătŭlŭr* may be as long as *Titŭrĕ*.

Hence, the only assumptions requisite are—

a. That Englishmen do *not* read the classical metres according to their quantities

b. That, nevertheless, they find metre in them

§ 845. *Why are the classical metres metrical to English*

readers?—Notwithstanding the extent to which quantity differs from accent, there is no metre so exclusively founded upon the former as to be without a certain amount of the latter, and in the majority (at least) of the classical (and probably other) metres *there is a sufficient amount of accentual elements to constitute metre, even independent of the quantitative ones*

§ 846. *Many (perhaps all) classical metres on a level with the unsymmetrical English ones*—The following is the notation of the extract from the *Siege of Corinth* in the preceding chapter —

[illegible]

Now many Latin metres present a recurrence of accent little more irregular than the quotation just analyzed. The following is the accentual formula of the first two stanzas of the second ode of the first Book of Horace.

1

Accental Formula of the Latin Sapphire

$$\begin{array}{cccc|cccc} a & a & v & a & x & a & r & a & v & a & x \\ a & x & v & a & v & a & x & a & x & a & x \\ a & v & x & a & x & a & x & a & x & a & x \\ & & & & & & & a & x & x & a & x \end{array}$$
$$\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} a & x & x & a & x & a & x & a & v \\ a & x & x & a & x & a & x & a & v \\ a & x & x & a & v & a & v & a & v \\ & & & & & a & x & x & a & x \end{array}$$

2

*Latin Asclepiad**Horace, Od I 1-6*

x	a	˘	a	x	x		a	x	r	a	r	r	
a	x	v	a	˘	r		a	x	a	˘	a	r	
a	x	a	v	a	v		a	˘	˘	a	˘	˘	
a	˘	a	v	a	v		a	˘	v	a	v	˘	
a	˘	a	x	a	˘		a	x	r	a	r	r	
˘	a	x	a	˘	˘		a	r	˘	a	v	a	x

3

*Latin Hexameter**Æn 1-5*

a	x	˘	a	˘	a	˘	a	x	x	a	r	x	a	x
x	a	x	x	a	x	a	x	x	a	v	x	a	r	
a	x	x	r	a	˘	a	v	x	v	a	x	x	a	˘
x	a	x	x	a	x	˘	x	˘	v	a	x	x	a	v

A longer list of examples would show us that, throughout the whole of the classical metres, the same accents recur, sometimes with less, and sometimes with but very little more irregularity than they recur in the *unsymmetrical* metres of our own language; and this in a prosody based upon *quantity*

§ 847. *Conversion of English into classical metres.* In the preface to his Translation of Aristophanes, Mr Walsh has shown, that, by a different distribution of lines, very fair hexameters may be made out of the well-known lines on the Burial of Sir John Moore :—

Not a drum was
 Heard, not a funeral note, as his corse to the rampart we hurried
 Not a soldier dis-
 Charged his farewell shot o'er the grave where our hero we buried
 We buried him
 Darkly at dead of night, the sods with our bayonets turning,
 By the struggling
 Moonbeams' misty light, and the lantern dimly burning
 Lightly they'll
 Talk of the spurt that's gone, and o'er his cold ashes upbraid him,
 But little he'll
 Reck if they let him sleep on in the grave where a Briton has laid him

Again, such lines as Coleridge's—

1 Make ready my grave clothes to-morrow,

or Shelley's—

2 Liquid Péneus was flowing,

are the exact analogues of lines like—

1 Jam lácto depúlsum leónem,

and—

2 Giáto Pyríla sub ántro

The rationale of so remarkable a phenomenon as *regularity of accent in verses considered to have been composed with a view to quantity only* has yet to be investigated. That it was necessary to the structure of the metres in question is certain; a fact which lead us to the consideration of the *cesura*.

§ 848. The *cesura* of the classical metrists is the result of—

1. The necessity in the classical metres of an accented syllable in certain parts of the verses.

2. The nearly total absence in the classical languages of words with an accent on the last syllable

From the joint effect of these two causes, it follows that in certain parts of a verse no final syllable can occur, *i. e.* no word can terminate.

Thus, in a language consisting chiefly of dissyllables, of which the first alone was accented, and in a metre which required the sixth syllable to be accented, the fifth and seventh would each be at the end of words, and that simply because the sixth was not.

Whilst in a language consisting chiefly of either dissyllables or trisyllables, and in a metre of the same sort as before, if the fifth were not final, the seventh would be so, or *vice versá*.

Cesura means *cutting*. In a language destitute of words accented on the last syllable, and in a metre requiring the sixth syllable to be accented, a measure (foot) of either the formula $x a$, or $x x a$ (*i. e.* a measure with the accent at the end), except in the case of words of four or more syllables, must always be either itself divided, or else cause the division of the following measures—*division* meaning the distribution of the syllables of the measure (foot) over two or more words. Thus—

a. If the accented syllable (the sixth) be the first of a word of any length, the preceding one (the fifth) must be the final one of the word which went before; in which case the first and last

parts belong to different words, and the measure (foot) is divided or *cut*

b If the accented syllable (the sixth) be the second of a word of three syllables, the succeeding one, which is at the end of the word, is the first part of the measure which follows, in which case the first and last parts of the measure (foot) which follows the accented syllable are divided or *cut*.

As the cesura, or the necessity for dividing certain measures between two words, arises out of the structure of language, it only occurs in tongues where there is a notable absence of words accented on the last syllable. Consequently there is no cesura in the English

§ 849. As far as accent is concerned, the classical poets write in *measures* rather than *feet*.

Although the idea of writing English hexameters, &c., on the principle of an accent in a measure taking the place of the long syllables in a foot, is chimerical, it is perfectly practicable to write English verses upon the same principle which the classics themselves have written on, *i. e.* with accents recurring within certain limits; in which case the so-called classical metre is merely an unsymmetrical verse of a new kind. This may be either blank verse or rhyme

The chief reason against the naturalization of metres of the sort in question (over and above the practical one of our having another kind in use already), lies in the fact of their being perplexing to the readers who have *not* been trained to classical cadences, whilst they suggest and violate the idea of *quantity* to those who have

§ 850. Of all metres that of English blank verse is the simplest. Perhaps throughout the whole range of literature and art, no style of composition equally simple and severe can be found, the *paucity of rules* being the measure of the simplicity and severity.

A single rule gives the form of a noble metre—this rule being that *on every even syllable there shall be an accent*.

More than this is unnecessary. With this a poem of the magnitude of the *Paradise Lost* may be written—the licences and accessory ornaments that lie beyond being unnecessary and unimportant. This will become clearer when we have realized the fact that in English blank verse, even the division into lines is unnecessary, except so far as it is required for the division of words and the breaks in the sense

With these the end of lines should coincide. If it were not so, the whole of such a poem as the *Paradise Lost* might form one line of indefinite length. In certain Greek metres this is the case. So complete is each part in itself, that the metre may be taken up anywhere, and all the lines cohere together—this cohesion being called *Synapheia* (=connection).

In English blank verse there is a *Synapheia* of the same kind

NOTE

For the sake of showing the extent to which the *accentual element* must be recognized in the classical metres, I reprint the following paper On the Doctrine of the Césura in the Greek Senarius, from the *Transactions of the Philological Society*, June 23, 1843.—

In respect to the Césura of the Greek tragic senarius, the rules, as laid down by Porson in the Supplement to his Preface to the *Hecuba*, and as recognized, more or less, by the English school of critics, seem capable of a more general expression, and, at the same time, liable to certain limitations in regard to fact. This becomes apparent when we investigate the principle that serves as the foundation to these rules; in other words, when we exhibit the *rationale*, or doctrine, of the césura in question. At this we can arrive by taking cognizance of a second element of metre beyond that of quantity.

It is assumed that the element in metre which goes, in works of different writers, under the name of *ictus metricus*, or of *arsis*, is the same as accent, *in the sense of that word in English*. It is this that constitutes the difference between words like *týrant* and *resúme*, or *súrvey* and *survéy*; or (to take more convenient examples) between the word *Aúgust*, used as the name of a month, and *augúst*, used as an adjective. Without inquiring how far this coincides with the accent and accentuation of the classical grammarians, it may be stated that, in the forthcoming pages, *arsis*, *ictus metricus*, and accent (*in the English sense of the word*), mean one and the same thing. With this view of the *arsis*, or *ictus*, we may ask how far, in each particular foot of the senarius, it coincides with the quantity.

First Foot.—In the first place, of a tragic senarius it is a matter of indifference whether the *arsis* fall on the first or second syllable; that is, it is a matter of indifference whether the foot be sounded as *týrant* or as *resúme*, as *Aúgust* or as *augúst*. In

the following lines the words ἦκω, παλαι, εἶπερ, τίνas, may be pronounced either as ἦ'κω, πάλαι, εἶ'περ, τί'νας, or as ἦκώ', παλαι', εἶπερ', τινά's, without any detriment to the character of the line wherein they occur.

Ἢ'κω νεκρῶν κευθμῶνα καὶ σκοτοῦ πύλας
Πάλαι κυνηγετοῦντα καὶ μετροῦμενον
Εἶπερ δίκαιος ἐσθ' ἐμός τα πατροθεν
Τίνas ποθ' ἔδρας ταῦδε μοι θαῤῥετε.

or,

Ἢκώ' νεκρῶν κευθμῶνα καὶ σκοτοῦ πύλας
Πάλαι' κυνηγετοῦντα καὶ μετροῦμενον
Εἶπερ' δίκαιος ἐσθ' ἐμός τα πατροθεν
Τινά's ποθ' ἔδρας ταῦδε μοι θαῤῥετε

Second Foot—In the second place, it is also matter of indifference whether the foot be sounded as *Augúst* or as *augúst*. In the first of the four lines quoted above we may say either *νέκρων*, or *νεκρώ'ν*, without violating the rhythm of the verse.

Third Foot.—In this part of the senarius it is no longer a matter of indifference whether the foot be sounded as *Augúst* or as *augúst*, that is, it is no longer a matter of indifference whether the arsis and the quantity coincide. In the circumstance that the last syllable of the third foot *must* be accented (in the English sense of the word), taken along with a second fact, soon about to be exhibited, lies the doctrine of the penthümimer and hepthümimer cesuras.

The proof of the coincidence between the arsis and the quantity in the third foot is derived partly from *à posteriori*, partly from *à priori* evidence.

1 In the *Supplices* of Æschylus, the *Persæ*, and the *Bacchæ*, three dramas where licences in regard to metre are pre-eminent, the number of lines wherein the sixth syllable (*i. e.* the last half of the third foot) is without an arsis, is at the highest sixteen, at the lowest five; whilst in the remainder of the extant dramas the proportion is smaller.

2. In all lines where the sixth syllable is destitute of ictus, the iambic character is violated: as—

Θρηκὴν περσά'ντες μογὶς πολλῶ πονῶ
Δυσκοὶν γεροντοὶ ν' δε στρατηγεῖται φωνῇ.

These are facts which may be verified either by referring to the tragedians, or by constructing senarii like the lines last quoted.

The only difficulty that occurs arises in determining, in a dead language like the Greek, the absence or presence of the arsis. In this matter the writer had satisfied himself of the truth of the two following propositions:—1. That the accentuation of the grammarians denotes some modification of pronunciation *other* than that which constitutes the difference between *Áugust* and *augúst*; since, if it were not so, the word ἄγγελον would be sounded like *merrily*, and the word ἀγγέλων like *disáble*, which is improbable. 2. That the arsis lies upon radical rather than inflectional syllables, and out of two inflectional syllables upon the first rather than the second. as βλέπω βλεψ-α-σ-α, not βλεπ-ω', βλεψ-α-σ-α'. The evidence upon these points is derived from the structure of language in general, where the *onus probandi* lies with the critic who presumes an arsis (accent in the English sense) on a *non-radical* syllable.

Doubts, however, as to the pronunciation of certain words, leave the precise number of lines violating the rules given above undetermined. It is considered sufficient to show that wherever they occur the iambic character is violated.

The circumstance, however, of the last half of the third foot requiring an arsis, brings us only half way towards the doctrine of the cesura. With this must be combined a second fact arising out of the constitution of the Greek language in respect to its accent. In accordance with the views just exhibited, the author conceives that no Greek word has an arsis upon the last syllable, except in the three following cases:—

1. Monosyllables, not enclitic, as σφών, πα'ς, χθών, δμώ's, νών, νύ'ν, &c.

2. Circumflex futures; as νεμώ, τεμώ, &c.

3. Words abbreviated by apocope; in which case the penultimate is converted into a final syllable, δώ'μ', φειδεσ'θ' κεντεί'τ', εγώ'γ', &c.

Now the fact of a syllable with an arsis being, in Greek, rarely final, taken along with that of the sixth syllable requiring, in the senarius, an arsis, gives, as a matter of necessity, the circumstance that, in the Greek drama, the sixth syllable shall occur anywhere rather than at the end of a word, and this is only another way of saying, that, in a tragic senarius, the syllable in question shall generally be followed by other syllables in the same word. All this the author considers to be so truly a matter of necessity, that the objection to his view of the Greek cesura must lie either against his idea of the nature of the

accents, or nowhere : since, that being admitted, the rest follows of course.

As the sixth syllable must not be final, it must be followed in the same word by one syllable, or by more than one.

1. *The sixth syllable followed by one syllable in the same word.*—This is only another name for the seventh syllable occurring at the end of a word, and it gives at once the hepthimimer cesura : as —

Ἦκω νεκρῶν κευθμῶνα καὶ σκοτοῦ πυλᾶς.

Ἰκτηριοὺς κλαδοῖσιν ἐξεστεμμένοι

Ὀμον τε παιανῶν τε καὶ στεναγματῶν

2 *The sixth syllable followed by two (or more) syllables in the same word*—This is only another name for the eighth (or some syllable after the eighth) syllable occurring at the end of a word as—

Ὀδμῇ βροτειῶν αἵματων με προσγέλα.

Δαμπροὺς δυνάστας ἐμ' περποντας αἰθερί.

Now this arrangement of syllables, taken by itself, gives anything rather than a hepthimimer ; so that if it were at this point that our investigations terminated, little would be done towards the evolution of the *rationale* of the cesura. It will appear, however, that in those cases where the circumstance of the sixth syllable being followed by two others in the same words, causes the eighth (or some syllable after the eighth) to be final, either a penthimimer cesura, or an equivalent, will, with but few exceptions, be the result. This we may prove by taking the eighth syllable and counting back from it. What follows this syllable is immaterial. it is the number of syllables in the same word that *precedes* it that demands attention.

1. *The eighth syllable preceded in the same word by nothing.*—This is equivalent to the seventh syllable at the end of the preceding word ; a state of things which, as noticed above, gives the hepthimimer cesura.

Ἀνηριθμὸν γελᾶσμα παμμήτορ δὲ γῆ.

2. *The eighth syllable preceded in the same word by one syllable*—This is equivalent to the sixth syllable at the end of the word preceding ; a state of things which, as noticed above, rarely occurs. When, however, it does occur, one of the three conditions under which a final syllable can take an arsis must accompany it. Each of these conditions requires notice

α) With a non-enclitic *mono*-syllable the result is a penthimimer cesura, since the syllable preceding a monosyllable is necessarily final.

Ἦλω γεβίζων σὸν Κλυταίμνηστρα κρατος

No remark has been made by critics upon lines constructed in this manner, since the cesura is a penthimimer, and consequently their rules are undisturbed.

β). With *poly*-syllable circumflex futures constituting the third foot, there would be a violation of the current rules respecting the cesura. Notwithstanding this, if the views of the present paper be true, there would be no violation of the iambic character of the senarius. Against such a line as

Κάγω γοσον νεμὼ ποθεῖνον αὐλιον

there is no argument *à priori* on the score of the iambic character being violated, whilst, in respect to objections derived from evidence *à posteriori*, there is sufficient reason for such lines being rare.

γ) With *poly*-syllables abbreviated by apocope, we have the state of things which the metrists have recognized under the name of quasi-cesura, as—

Κεντεῖτε μὴ φειδέσθ' ἐγὼ | ἔτερον Παριῶν

3 —The eighth syllable preceded in the same word by two syllables —This is equivalent to the fifth syllable occurring at the end of the word preceding: a state of things which gives the penthimimer cesura, as—

Οδμὴ βροτειῶν αἵματ' ὦν | με προσγέλα.
 Λαμπροὺς δυνάστας ἐμ' ἔπρεπον | τας αἰθερί.
 Ἀψυχὸν εἰκὼ πρόσγελω | σα σώματος.

4. The eighth syllable preceded in the same word by three or more than three syllables.—This is equivalent to the fourth (or some syllable preceding the fourth) syllable occurring at the end of the word preceding; a state of things which would include the third and fourth feet in one and the same word. This concurrence is denounced in the Supplement to the Preface to the *Hecuba*, where, however the rule, as in the case of the quasi-cesura, from being based upon merely empirical evidence, requires limitation. In lines like—

Καὶ τὰλλα πολλὰ ἐπεὶ κασαι ἰ δίκαιον ἦν,

or (an imaginary example),

Τοῖς σοῖσι ν' ἀσπιδὴ στροφοῖσι ν' ἀνδρασι,

there is no violation of the iambic character, and consequently no reason against similar lines having been written, although from the average proportion of Greek words like *επείκασαι* and *ασπιδηστροφοισιν*, there is every reason for their being rare.

After the details just given the recapitulation is brief.

1. It was essential to the character of the senarius that the sixth syllable, or latter half of the third foot, should have an arsis, ictus metricus, or accent in the English sense. To this condition of the iambic rhythm the Greek tragedians, either consciously or unconsciously, adhered

2. It was the character of the Greek language to admit an arsis on the last syllable of a word only under circumstances comparatively rare.

3. These two facts, taken together, caused the sixth syllable of a line to be anywhere rather than at the end of a word.

4. If followed by a single syllable in the same word, the result was a hepthimimer cesura

5. If followed by more syllables than one, some syllable in an earlier part of the line ended the word preceding, and so caused either a penthimimer, a quasi-cesura, or the occurrence of the third and fourth foot in the same word.

6. As these two last-mentioned circumstances were rare, the general phenomenon presented in the Greek senarius was the occurrence of either the penthimimer or hepthimimer

7. Respecting these two sorts of cesura, the ordinary rules, instead of being exhibited in detail, may be replaced by the simple assertion that there should be an arsis on the sixth syllable. From this the rest follows

8. Respecting the non-occurrence of the third and fourth feet in the same word, the assertion may be withdrawn entirely.

9. Respecting the quasi-cesura, the rules, if not altogether withdrawn, may be extended to the admission of the last syllable of circumflex futures (or to any other polysyllables with an equal claim to be considered accented on the last syllable) in the latter half of the third foot.

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